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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 22, 1910.

The Week.

"Treason successful is no longer treason." That is the moral which stands out on the face of the President's letter announcing that he will not hereafter discriminate against insurgent Congressmen in the matter of patronage. They have triumphed in spite of the fact that the other fellows had the offices, and now there is nothing left to do but give them their due share. The President's statement has been described as an unblushing going over to the spoils system, and a complete break with the principles of civil-service reform. It is not so bad as that. The offices in question are those not covered by the rules, not in the classified service. These have been filled by all recent Presidents—by Cleveland as by Roosevelt—on the recommendation of Congressmen. So that President Taft is making no new departure, except in the matter of recognizing Trojan and Tyrian alike in the distribution. This must be said in fairness, but the fact remains that the President's letter is one that should never have been written. It is humiliating as a confession of failure on the lines of policy before followed, while as an effort to placate opposition it will almost certainly prove to be another failure. What Mr. Taft doubtless had in mind was the desirability of conciliating Republicans whom he had antagonized, and inducing all factions to work together for success in the coming elections. But it must be confessed that he has gone about the business with the same lack of political sagacity that has marked his dealings with the insurgents from the beginning.

If, as now appears, Gov. Hughes's speech at Syracuse last week should prove to be his last as Governor, there will attach a melancholy interest to it in addition to that awakened by its statesmanlike quality and its many earnest recommendations. As the day for Gov. Hughes's retirement approaches there must be greater and greater regrets at the loss of so sane, conservative, and wise an administrative force. Some of his last recommendations, that the State set up an annual budget that is really a budget, place its administration on a business basis, and reform its legislative procedure, are of the highest importance and must sooner or later be acted on. One does not need to be committed to the four-year Governorship plan to realize the many arguments in its favor, or those that are on the side of making the incumbent ineligible for reëlection. But on these questions, too, no one can gainsay the force with which the Governor speaks out of his now rich experience in the Capitol. Every Governor has, for instance, been overwhelmed by the thirty-day bills that have been laid upon his desk by the hundreds. For a conscientious man to go through this mass intelligently is enough to break him down physically, if not mentally. The odds are all against there being adequate consideration of what the Governor rightly describes as a heap of undigested, half-formed legislation. Fortunately, there is nothing to prevent Mr. Justice Hughes from giving valuable aid to the cause of State governmental reform, about which no one can speak with greater authority.

Congressman Ernest W. Roberts of Massachusetts, a standpatter, a Cannon man, and a cog in the Lodge machine, has blurted the truth right out in meeting. In an interview given to the Milwaukee *Journal*, he declares that "Massachusetts is seething with Republican insurgency, which threatens to turn the State over to the Democrats in November, repeating the performance in Maine." Mr. Roberts's daily mail, he complains, is full of letters demanding to know where he stands on Cannon, and "asking other pertinent questions." Hence, while ready to defend Cannon to the last ditch and never to deny him, he tearfully asserts that Cannon owes it to his Congressional friends to declare himself out of the race for the Speakership. More than that, Mr. Roberts feels that a Democratic landslide, involving a Democratic Legislature and a Democratic successor to Lodge, is not improbable. Here is treachery to the Nahant statesman in his own camp. Certainly, worn and anxious as Mr. Lodge is, this can only add to his embarrassments, for, even though few as yet hold Congressman Roberts's view, there are those who believe that a combination of Democrats and anti-Lodge Republicans is not impossible.

Results of the Illinois primaries show good and evil strangely mixed. Twenty-two of the thirty-two Lorimer Democrats with the stigma of party disloyalty and the implication of something worse upon them, won renominations. One of these was Browne, the recently acquitted minority leader against whom several indictments still stand. Shurtleff, the Republican Speaker who engineered the bipartisan conspiracy and whose defeat was urged by Gov. Deneen on the ground that he had betrayed his party, was among the Republicans successful in obtaining a renomination. More satisfactory were the results in the Republican Congressional primaries. Cannon won as it was expected he would; so did Moxley of "butterine" fame. Mann won easily, and Foss by a rather narrow margin. Yet in every district where a contest was made on progressive lines, the progressives won. Progressives, if elected, will occupy in the next Congress the seats now filled by such strong standpatters as Boutell and Lowden. There will be seven progressives in the next delegation; there is not one at present. And there is one consolation for those who looked for a greater triumph for the moral principle involved. The vote at the primaries was unusually light, and there will be another opportunity in November to pass judgment upon the men with clouded reputations.

The action of the Independent Democratic convention in Tennessee in endorsing the candidacy of Ben W. Hooper, the Republican candidate for Governor, is an interesting demonstration of the strength of a political movement with a strong moral issue involved. The independent revolt was organized for the purpose of eliminating Gov. Patterson from the Democratic leadership, as well as from the office of Governor. When he withdrew from the contest for the latter, however, the movement had acquired such impetus that there was

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apparently no serious thought of turning back. Whether the independents distrusted his professions and his friends, or whether they were held in line by binding agreements with the Republican leaders or by the simple logic of the situation, their decision apparently was that neither Patterson nor any compromise candidate named to run on his ticket would bring about the sort of house-cleaning in the Democratic organization which they seek. That could best be achieved by the election of a Republican whose success would be a rebuke to Patterson and all he stands for. Should Hooper be elected, however, his choice could in no way be considered a "break in the solid South" which the Republican press already foresees. The "gentleman's agreement" with the Republicans provides for no contests on minor officers in districts already conceded to either party. There was no endorsement of the Republican ticket as a whole or of the Republican platform. If Hooper wins, it will mean only that the Tennessee electorate has set moral considerations above partisanship.

Gov. Harmon's course during the Columbus strike has been absolutely impartial. He has made every effort to induce both sides to come to a friendly agreement. It has been well known from the start that he favors arbitration, but to the request of hot-headed labor leaders that he should publicly denounce the attitude of the street railway managers and thus attempt to force them to arbitrate, he gave the dignified and unimpeachable answer that his sole function is to maintain law and order, and not to take sides with either party to the difficulty. A few politicians who have hoped for some chance wind to turn the current against the Governor before November, imagine that the strike situation is just what they have been looking for; but it is a safe prophecy that they are doomed to disappointment. If it is an offence to the striking unionists to employ the legal power of the State against the villains who have repeatedly assailed with dynamite, stones, and bullets car after car containing innocent men, women, and children, so much the worse for the strikers. If the particular organization involved should be guilty of such folly as to make an open fight on that basis, it is not conceivable that it could carry with it any considerable proportion of the organized labor of the State. Even on the improbable supposition that it should do so, the reaction among fair-minded Republicans of other classes would be enormous. Republican leaders unwise enough to attack the Governor on this score are likely to be called emphatically to their senses by Candidate Harding himself.

A notable event in the history of reform was foreshadowed in New York by Mr. Mitchel's reception of the delegates to the International Prison Congress. This meets in Washington from October 2 to October 8, as a result of an invitation extended in 1905 by the President of the United States in response to a resolution of Congress. Nor could Mr. Mitchel exaggerate the cordial welcome awaiting the delegates. A true source of pride for this country has been the devoted, unselfish labors of many persons in this field of penology—the name of the late Samuel J. Barrows inevitably suggests itself for one—and the real advances achieved, such as the devising and putting into effect of the courts for juvenile offenders. Not in all sections of the country, of course; in the South, for instance, the horrors of the barbarous and unenlightened chain-gang remain—they gave a white woman prisoner over one hundred lashes in Georgia just the other day. But, on the other hand, there come from the West reports of successful experiments with unguarded prison camps, and of prisoners going to jail without guards. In fact, it is hardly an exaggeration to say that this country affords to the visitors from foreign shores actual illustrations of about every kind and degree of unenlightenment or progress in the treatment of criminals.

In the main, however, the humanitarian spirit controls in the treatment of prisoners, and there is a rapidly growing civic consciousness on this and other social reforms that makes certain more telling progress in the next decade than in the last two. That the path to be followed has not yet appeared quite clearly out of the mists of ignorance, superstition, and the desire for vengeance is naturally apparent. Were everybody agreed as to just how far the policy of corrective punishment may be followed without endangering the deterrent quality of imprisonment, there would be removed a chief cause for the gathering at Washington. That the number of those who believe nearly every form of crime a kind of disease is growing is as true as the increasing of those who think that all crime would disappear if only the teachings of Socialism were to be put in force. Yet, with all the divergences of opinion, there is at every such gathering a more and more humanitarian as well as a more scientific spirit.

The Prohibition candidate for Governor of Connecticut is reported to have doubled the demand for his campaign button by hitching his "white steed" to a fire-truck, in the absence of the fire-horses from the hose-house, and driving the firemen to the blaze in little more than the customary time. Without minimizing the resourcefulness of Mr. Hohenthal, we ask what it is that instinctively causes us to associate the word "popular" with some act that, whether merely sensational or downright vulgar, is a departure from the normal course of conduct. Why should not the term suggest some action graceful rather than awkward, delicate instead of rude, quiet and not noisy? Perhaps the reason lies in the persistent confusion between what is admired and what is only wondered at, a confusion reaching back into the etymology of the word. This confusion is increased by the fact that our expression of wonder is not unlike our expression of admiration, a phenomenon of which we are all glad to take frequent advantage in the perilous passages of polite society. To a child, wonder and admiration are often enough inseparable, but he is a rash suitor who thinks them identical in men and women.

Some Western railways might take a lesson from the East. Hereabouts we find one railway establishing model farms, where neighboring private farmers can see in operation the latest devices for intensive culture. Another publishes the results of expert investigations going to show how dairy herds can be made more profitable. A third is advising its patrons about the forestation of waste lands. In the West,

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however, the railway bulletins seem chiefly designed to lure readers in one region to pick up their household gods and move into another. As a rule, the farmer who has made two or three such shifts, staying in each new home only long enough to endure the settler's without enjoying the agriculturist's life, becomes a blind corporation-hater, attributing his failure always to the deceitful and oppressive carriers. Would it not pay the Western railway managers, for a while at least, to devote a little more attention to the development of the districts in which they are already doing an assured business, than to the settlement of the wilds into which they are building spurs?

The magazine publisher in politics is by no means so successful as the author in politics. New Jersey has shattered the political aspirations of two magazine publishers standing at the very tip-top of circulation and uplift. It is sad to contrast the fate of the proprietor of *Everybody's* with that of one of his best-known contributors, Mr. Charles Edward Russell, whom the Socialists have made their candidate for Governor of New York. It is even more sad to contrast the fate of Mr. Harold J. Howland, who did not secure a Congressional nomination in New Jersey, with that of the *Outlook's* Contributing Editor, who, by common agreement, can have anything he wants in the way of nominations. Both magazine gentlemen are now the richer in experience. The former has discovered the well-worn truth that the man who sways the opinions of several hundred thousand subscribers may fail very conspicuously to sway the opinions of his neighbors. Mr. Howland has discovered the somewhat more specific truth that the Roosevelt atmosphere does not necessarily mean political salvation, nor the Roosevelt O.K. command a majority of votes. Several candidates bearing the Contributing Editor's brand have lately come to grief.

In the celebration of Mexico's centennial of independence which began last Friday on an elaborate scale, Porfirio Diaz has probably attained the spectacular climax of his career. The Paris Exposition of 1867 preceded Sedan by less than three years. What would come to Mexico within the next year or two if the iron hand that has long ruled its destinies should be removed, it would be unsafe to predict. Yet in the nature of things, the hand of Porfirio Diaz must soon be relaxed by a greater power. Herein consists the weakness of a man to whom it would be idle to deny greatness in many respects. Spanish-American capacity for self-government is not so utterly proven and Spanish-American dictatorships are not so rare as to make the one-man rule in Mexico an unmitigated evil or offence in itself. The evil is that Diaz has not seen fit to use his absolute authority to educate the Mexican people toward self-government. President Diaz might well have tolerated an Opposition party without endangering his own position. As time went on, he could well have afforded to allow more breathing space in politics and the press. With many of the attributes of an enlightened ruler, he seems to have been too much contented with the policy of "after me the deluge."

The destruction of the Zeppelin VI appears to have been in no wise due to any defect of construction, but merely to carelessness on the part of a machinist who placed an open can of benzine near a motor. A spark from the latter did the mischief. But the blow to Count Zeppelin is none the less severe. Save for one airship now under construction, there survives only one other, the oldest, which belongs to the army. Months must elapse before the new one can be placed in service; and as these aircraft are presumably not insured, the financial loss from the three wrecks must be very great. Nevertheless, the experiments ought to be carried on, even though the heavier-than-air craft are at present having everything their own way. It is to be hoped that the much-vaunting Walter Wellman will really accomplish something with his dirigible in his proposed transatlantic flight; for this would stimulate the construction of similar craft in this country. If the dirigible does not soon achieve a transatlantic passage, the monoplane will—at least this is Moissant's view, after his flight from Paris to London. His opinions expressed on his arrival in the latter city are the most encouraging and apparently the best-founded that we have yet seen as to the practical future before the aeroplane.

The Australian Commonwealth is only twelve years old, yet already there is much dissatisfaction with the Constitution of 1898. Like the Constitution of the United Sates, it represented a compromise between the national principle and home rule under State governments; and it has not in all respects worked well. The result is that, behind the political parties and blent with them all, there is forming a division into a States'-right party and what may be called a unification party. That is to say, there is a tendency, in which the Labor party strongly shares, to subordinate the States to the Commonwealth in an increasing number of legislative matters. On the other hand, the representatives of the State governments and those who sympathize with them in the Federal Parliament, are contending that the metes and bounds marked out in the Constitution must be sacredly observed. It is not denied that, if the Federal power is to be heightened, as many desire, amendments of the Constitution will be necessary. The subject most in debate just now is financial. Federal revenue is to be distributed among the States, and the dispute is upon what basis this is to be done.

The sedition trials that have been under way in Bengal for many weeks show that while there has been a lull in the anarchistic methods of anti-British agitation, the nationalist movement as a whole has remained virtually unaffected by the drastic press laws recently enacted. Secret and silent resistance is a mode of campaigning to which the Hindu caste system, with its facilities for exercising social and religious pressure, peculiarly lends itself. A striking instance is found in the resignation of the well-known native lawyer, Mr. Sinha, who was recently appointed to a seat in the Viceroy's Council. This was the first time in the history of British India that a native had been admitted to the very citadel of the British power and to a share in the framing of the most intimate policies whereby the Englishman keeps his hold on India. That Mr. Sinha, after a few months in office, should have laid down the highest position that has ever fallen to a native of India under the British rule, is generally ascribed to the working of public opinion among the distinguished Hindu's countrymen.

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HIDING BEHIND LINCOLN.

It was an unusual sensitiveness to criticism which Col. Roosevelt betrayed in his speech at Syracuse on Saturday. He must have heard a good deal about what the *Outlook* calls "misconstruction and misapprehension by friends," in connection with his reckless language about judges and his loose and misleading references to decisions of the courts. Hence he took occasion to assure the astonished farmers who listened to him that he had a "profound respect for the Supreme Court." Yet he asserted the right of private citizens to comment freely upon the findings of judges, and to express dissent from them—a right which nobody seriously questions. He also cited some of the strictures upon the Dred Scott decision made by Lincoln, and concluded triumphantly: "If I have erred, I err in company with Abraham Lincoln."

Mr. Roosevelt has got a good deal of comfort, at one time and another, out of these comparisons of himself with other great and good men. One of his last utterances in the White House was a timely reminder to the people that Washington had been attacked, and so had he. But it is Lincoln who now serves him at Osawatomie and Syracuse. The logic runs: Lincoln and I have both been charged with criticising the courts; Lincoln was a patriot, a saint, and a hero; therefore, I am—what I leave you to infer. This reasoning is not of the most conclusive sort conceivable. It is too easily reversible, as thus: Roosevelt and Aaron Burr were both attacked as lawless and unscrupulous politicians aiming to change our form of government; but Roosevelt was in reality an unselfish and high-minded statesman; therefore, Aaron Burr was an exemplar to all American youth.

Leaving the fantastic logic which would put Lincoln and Roosevelt in the same category, let us ask what are the facts which show the radical difference between the two men in the matter under inquiry. There is on the surface one important difference. It is that of tone and manner. In Lincoln's public discussions of the Dred Scott decision, we have the measured utterance of a lawyer accustomed to weigh his words. There is not in them a trace of that explosive and inflammatory quality which appeared in Mr. Roosevelt's Colorado speech. It is not possible to conceive of Mr. Lincoln calling the judges of the Supreme Court "fossilized." That word is a mild one for Mr. Roosevelt. He has expressed before many witnesses his contempt for certain judges in much more offensive language. Now, it is an old saying that in affairs of state it is the tone which makes the song, and it is this violent tone of Mr. Roosevelt which not only puts him at a wide remove from Lincoln but alarms his friends and makes sober men dread the effect of his attitude.

Still sharper will the divergence between Lincoln and Roosevelt appear when one turns to the speech of the former on the Dred Scott decision and contrasts it with the ex-President's outbursts. The two things are as different as the reasoned protest of a grown man and the pettish outcry of a child. Mr. Roosevelt exclaims that a certain decision which he dislikes is "against popular rights"; and that another is "against the democratic principle of government", and not in accord with the spirit of the times. It never occurred to him to ask what the law was, what the judicial precedents were, and what, then, was the duty of the court. Mr. Roosevelt is, of course, not able to approach the question as a lawyer. But Lincoln was; and it is only necessary to take a few of his sentences to show the folly of the Colonel's attempt to hide behind him.

Said Lincoln on June 27, 1857:

> Judge Douglas does not discuss the merits of the decision, and in that respect I shall follow his example, believing I could not more improve on McLean and Curtis than he could on Taney.
>
> He denounces all who question the correctness of that decision, as offering violent resistance to it. But who resists it? Who has, in spite of the decision, declared Dred Scott free, and resisted the authority of his master over him?
>
> We believe as much as Judge Douglas (perhaps more) in obedience to and respect for the judicial department of government. We think its decisions on Constitutional questions, when fully settled, should control not only the particular cases decided, but the general policy of the country, subject to be disturbed only by amendments to the Constitution as provided in that instrument itself. More than this would be revolution.

But Lincoln then went on to point out with much care and sobriety why he thought the Dred Scott decision was "erroneous," and would be in time overruled. He explained that the alleged "historical facts" put before the court were not "really true"; and that it had not given due weight to the implications of the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States. In other words, Lincoln made a studied and deferential plea for a reargument of the case, on the ground that it could not fairly be regarded as having "established a settled doctrine for the country." Between this and the position taken by Mr. Roosevelt there is a great gulf fixed.

A REAL SCHOLAR IN POLITICS.

President Wilson's nomination for Governor of New Jersey is one of those electrifying events which make politics seem worth while. It left the Republicans absolutely stunned. They never thought it possible that the despised Democrats would select so distinguished and inspiring a leader, and were aghast as they looked over their own list of mediocrities, one of whom they finally nominated. They knew of the announced readiness of thousands of Republicans to vote for the President of Princeton. The independent voters, who swarm in northern New Jersey, are sure to go the same way almost in a body. Hence even before the Republican Convention, the frank opinion of all frank members of that party was that Wilson will sweep the State.

Certainly, if New Jersey does not rise to the great opportunity of putting such a man in the Governorship, she will get a worse name among the States than she has ever had for creating and harboring offensive corporations. For Woodrow Wilson is a man of varied and singular fitness for high office. A genuine scholar, his main studies have been in the science of government; and his teachings have been filled with the aspirations of a thorough believer in the great democratic movement of the age. From the day of the publication of his book on "Congressional Government," which showed a keen mind piercing behind political forms to realities, he has applied himself not merely to university problems, but to a close and intelligent observation and analysis of the political activities going on about him. Those Republicans who have spoken of him patronizingly as a cloistered figure, living in an ideal world and thinking in a vacuum, must have had their eyes opened by his speech accepting the nomination. It was dignified in manner and elevated in style,

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but there was not a trace of academic abstractness about it. An intense political realist was speaking. President Wilson went directly to the topics about which all New Jersey is concerned, and handled them with a force and pungency that set his audience applauding enthusiastically, and that will impress the whole State with the appearance of a new force in its public life. Cumbrous and extravagant administration of the State's affairs, the need of radical reform in the methods of taxation, a real public-service commission—these were the subjects to which Mr. Wilson addressed himself with vigor and incisiveness. It is a refreshing advent of a scholar in politics who knows books but who also knows men and government.

The Republican argument against Wilson is already indicated. All that is said of his ability and high character will be admitted, but the voters will be sorrowfully asked to consider the bad men and the wicked machine that are behind his candidacy. We understand that more than one Republican who has been a part of the machine of his own party, that has commercialized the politics of New Jersey for fourteen years and been the beneficiary and tool of corporations, will be ready to take the stump and shed tears over the prospect of the Democratic organization becoming strong once more. There will also be the charge that Wilson's nomination was brought about by "special interests." Senator Kean is prepared to maintain up and down the State that no man who knows a railway president by sight, or is acquainted with a director of a corporation, is fit to be trusted. And if the "special-interests" attack shows signs of failing, ex-Senator Dryden can be asked to explain to large audiences how intense was his antagonism, and that of the party which honored him—or, at least, honored his checks—to anything like favors to corporations. New Jersey voters have many faults, but they have never been accused of being without a sense of humor; and the spectacle of Republicans arraigning Wilson for subserviency to a political machine and to special interests will be sure to provoke a guffaw from Cape May to Deckertown.

All these puny Republican weapons, President Wilson really broke and brushed aside in his speech. He had taken the nomination without a single pledge; nobody had even ventured to ask him for a pledge on any subject. He stands his own master. All that he seeks is an opportunity to serve the State to the best of his powers. In consenting to leave the work to which his manhood has been devoted, and to enter official life, he is but acting up to his own doctrines of the duty of a citizen under a republic. He has told his students that when the State calls them, it is for them to obey. The State has called him, and he obeys.

CUTTING OFF BOUNTIES AT OTTAWA.

The trials of the Canadian Premier are never-ending in these days of political insurgency in the Dominion. No sooner was Laurier again in Ottawa after his interviews with the associated grain-growers of the prairie provinces, who are clamorously insistent on an immediate lowering of tariff duties, than he was confronted with a problem in the iron and steel industry, due to the fact that bounties must come to an end in December next. Twenty-seven years ago the Dominion Government began paying bounties on pig iron. There was a bankrupt iron-manufacturing company at Londonderry, Nova Scotia; and the politicians of that province demanded that protection should be so extended as to set the furnace in blast again. The industry has since had the indirect bounty of the tariff; while $17,000,000 has gone direct from the Treasury to some half-dozen iron and steel companies in the provinces of Nova Scotia and Ontario. More than $16,250,000 has been paid out under acts of Parliament passed since 1896. For these enactments Laurier is responsible.

At last, however, the bounty law is to expire. The Government dared not renew it at the 1909-10 session of Parliament because of the vigorous protests of the granges and grain-growers' associations. The melancholy announcement that the law could not pass again was conveyed to the iron and steel men with many expressions of regret. It was indeed sad news for Sydney, Londonderry, Hamilton, and Sault Ste. Marie—all centres of the iron industry. The iron and steel men had always been working on the pleasant assumption that bounties, like high duties in the tariff, were to go on forever. They had consequently capitalized bounties, municipal bonuses, provincial and municipal tax exemptions, cheap freight rates on the Intercolonial railway, and all other miscellaneous largesse, easily making (exclusive of tariff protection) a total of twenty million dollars bestowed on the industry since the Londonderry furnace was relighted by bounties in 1883. For much less than these twenty millions it would be possible today to duplicate the equipment of all the primary iron and steel plants of Canada. But most of the companies are heavily over-capitalized, and the outlook for dividends will not be promising when bounties cease.

Yet the men most concerned have persuaded themselves that there is a way out; and that if they are to be disconnected from the Ottawa pipe line they can cajole the Laurier Government into starting some new and indirect rivulets. They are now pleading that the industry is "still in the gristle," still in need of more aid than is given by the tariff of 1907; and they are asking for increases in the duties in the British preferential tariff, and in the general tariff on pig iron and other iron and steel products going into Canada from England and Scotland and from the United States.

Laurier and Fielding, the Minister of Finance who represents Nova Scotia in the Cabinet, would undoubtedly like to accommodate the iron and steel men. One reason is that the industry has always been a pet with Ottawa politicians. Another reason is that the Liberal party lost more ground in Nova Scotia at the general election of 1908 than in any other province, and another general election must quickly follow the Dominion census, which will be taken in April, 1911. But to add to the duties on pig iron and steel would increase the price of the raw material of the manufacturers of farm implements at Toronto, Hamilton, and Brantford. This would hardly be possible just at the time that farmers and grain-growers in the four provinces west of the Ottawa River are perfecting an organization to send a delegation of five hundred men to Ottawa to demand that the duties on farm implements shall be materially reduced in accordance with the old pledges of Laurier and the Liberals.

The revolt in the four farming provinces would alone prevent Laurier from

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complying with the new demands of the iron and steel men. But in addition to this the iron and steel men themselves have created difficulties. Two years ago the largest concern in the Dominion was glorying in the fact that it was selling rails by the ten thousand tons in India and Australia at prices that could not be met by English and Scottish rail-making companies. Within the last two years, also, no industry in Canada has been more affected by the Trust movement than the iron and steel industry. Moreover, to comply with the new demand would be another inroad on Laurier's much boasted British preference. There have been twenty or more such inroads since the preference first came into full operation in 1900—all at the instance of Canadian manufacturers. This is fully recognized both in England and Canada; and another serious curtailment of the preference at the instance of the iron and steel men would strengthen the revolt in the farming communities, where the preferential tariff of 1897 is the one item in the legislative record of the Laurier Government that has had popular approval. It will be difficult for Laurier and Fielding to shake off the iron and steel men—to tell them that $17,000,000 in direct government aid, plus protection for their products, ought to suffice to help the industry beyond the "gristle" stage. None the less, the shaking off will have to come; for never since Laurier came into office fourteen years ago was there more discontent with his Administration, or more indignation at his betrayal of Canadian Liberalism, than on the eve of the assembling of the Dominion Parliament for the session of 1910-11.

CULTURE UNDER FIRE.

The status of culture as a worthy object of effort and devotion has been subjected to vigorous and many-sided attack in recent years. This attack has come not only from enthusiastic educational reformers, but also from the preachers of humanitarian doctrines, and especially of the doctrine of social service as the only fit object of high endeavor. We have been told, in more than one quarter, that the laying up of knowledge or the developing of fine tastes and appreciations is mere selfish luxury if it is not made the basis of benefit to the community, of the achievement of some concrete outward end more or less commensurate with the time and energy that have been expended in its acquisition. Besides this, we have heard the more familiar and commonplace question whether the higher education is desirable to the individual under the tremendous stress of present-day competition in all callings. In the face of these questions, the cause of culture for its own sake has held up its head pretty well, and, indeed, within the last two or three years, it has shown signs of new strength in the reaction against the free elective system in our American college world; and President Lowell's inaugural address at Harvard a year ago was in large part a vigorous affirmation of the value of culture.

An article in the current issue of the *Popular Science Monthly* opens up the prospect of an attack on traditional ideas of education and culture along quite a different line. It is from the standpoint of physiological psychology that the desirability of such training and development as are given by the study of Latin and mathematics is to be challenged; and the challenge is to be more aggressive than any of those with which we have become familiar, not only because it is conveyed in the dogmatic tones of Science, but also because it goes farther than any other in its accusation. Culture studies like Latin and mathematics, if not followed up by use of them in after life, are, according to this view, worse than useless, they are actually injurious; they result in a permanent drain upon the whole mental organism, with consequences that may be of the most disastrous character. This is not absolutely asserted by Dr. George E. Dawson, in his article entitled "Parasitic Culture," but it is spoken of as a doctrine in a fair way of being established through the researches of experimental psychology. It is a consequence of the doctrine of the localization of functions in the brain, coupled with the general doctrines of physiology. What is asserted as at least probable, if not proved, is that the cultivation of certain mental powers not afterwards utilized results in the over-development of parts of the brain which afterwards become a drag upon the whole nervous and psychic economy; as in the case of the over-athletic young man excessive muscular development has meant the weakening of heart or lungs. Dr. Dawson says:

> What is the effect upon the girl's life of having to support an elaborate nervous mechanism for dealing with mathematical symbols and concepts which she never has occasion to use? What is the effect upon the boy's life of having to support a nervous mechanism for declining Latin nouns and adjectives, conjugating Latin verbs, and construing Latin sentences, which he never has occasion to use? May not these unused nervous organs become parasitic upon the nervous vitality, just as the unused muscles of the athlete become parasitic upon the general organic vitality? It may seem to some little less than fantastic to suggest such a result. And yet, if we believe that life is a biological unit, and that the laws controlling it are identical in nature and operation, there is no escaping this conclusion.

We shall probably be hearing a good deal of this in the near future; and we would not be understood to say that there is nothing in it. But there may well be something in it, yet nothing like so much in it as those who put it forward imagine in the enthusiasm of discovery; there is room for a world of difference here. A characteristic of this class of scientific agitation is an almost invariable absence of that essential mark of scientific thinking, the sense for quantitative distinctions. Assuming that all Dr. Dawson asserts is qualitatively true, we get not the slightest indication of the degree in which the alleged drain of the unused "cortical neurones," "association fibres," and the rest, exhausts the resources of the active organism. Unless that degree is serious, upholders of the old traditions may well rest content with the feeling that the injury thus done is of slight weight in comparison with those subtler but, as they believe, infinitely important benefits which they have always claimed for their discipline. And as though to emphasize this deficiency in the argument, that portion of it which rests not upon theoretical science, but upon familiar experience, is flagrantly vitiated by the same defect. For the experience of the overtrained athlete, which is obviously due not to the nature of his training, but to its excess, is all along set down as though it proved a case against moderate as well as excessive athletics. For overstudy or excessive concentration, the most old-fashioned of educators is not saying a word.

Nor is this the only way in which Dr. Dawson's article—although well worth reading and considering—shows that tendency to pseudo-scientific inference

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which is so seldom absent when the specialist makes an incursion into the broad questions of human life. Let us take but a single example:

> Intellectual culture, not being transferable, must become parasitic and a cause of mental disorganization when it fails of application and usefulness in the life of the individual. Illustrations are to be found in the over-refinements of culture in academic communities, in the nervous instability frequently met with among educated men and women, and in the religious and social vagaries and perversions that crop out in the older and more highly cultivated centres of population.

Surely, it can but have been absorption in a preconceived conclusion that led the writer to imagine "religious and social vagaries and perversions" as belonging particularly to the "more highly cultivated centres of population"; and if intellectual culture is not "transferable," and therefore "must become parasitic and a cause of mental disorganization when it fails of application and usefulness in the life of the individual," the physiological psychologists will have a hard nut to crack when it comes to explaining the splendid efficiency of the Oxford and Cambridge men who have, generation after generation, grappled with the administrative problems of the British Empire. If that be the kind of "mental disorganization" that is bred of classical and mathematical training, we cannot but feel, like Lincoln in the matter of Grant's whiskey, that many of our statesmen would be the better for some mental disorganization of the same brand.

MOVING-DAY.

One of the inalienable rights of the free American is the privilege of insuring his domestic tranquillity by leaving a domicile before it has become too familiar. An annual moving-day fits nicely into our practice of the restless life. A shorter period would not be sufficient to enable us to decide upon our next stopping-place, and a longer would give us *ennui*. It is not that we lack the home-feeling; we are at home anywhere. Indeed, it might be not unplausibly argued that an abnormal love of home drives us to seek as many homes as we can. If we do not carry our houses upon our backs, it is because we are certain of finding at nightfall suitable habitations still warm with the home-life of recently departed nomads like ourselves. A September Labor Day on which no manual labor is performed is less characteristic of us than our October moving day, unhonored and unsung, to be sure, but not without its realistic exhibits and its impressive parade. We are a nation of climbers, anxious not to miss anything; and each successive autumn brings with its brilliant leaves renewal of hopes and fancies of wonders to be ours under another roof.

To a sensitive spirit there may, indeed, be something disagreeable in this easy, automatic adoption and occupation of vacant quarters, as if house were identical with home. No doubt a new place, even the smallest of apartments, may be home from the first, or may speedily become home. There one builds for himself, without precedent or predecessor, free to plan as he will and under no necessity of conforming to lines already laid down and virtually unchangeable. But to set up Lares and Penates amid departing wreaths of alien smoke, with deserted embers sinking sullenly into silent ashes, is not only to receive inhospitable welcome at the threshold, but to render the new home a mere continuation, in some sort, of the old, and thus to preclude that individuality which, however crude or conventional, is the finest element in the home-fabric. It is not that one objects to ghosts. If only they would deign to haunt the scientific arrangements of a modern dwelling, from which, along with children, dogs, and chimneys, they have been ruthlessly banished! But stranger ghosts, spirits of the unknown dead, spooks not in one's set—who can abide these? Better no ghosts at all than those whose unfamiliar presence causes such mutual embarrassment.

This ready breaking of home ties, together with the overlapping and consequent blending, to some extent, of home-atmospheres, also plays its part in the disintegration of the family. For at each abandoned home-spot something of the home is left behind. Every family is a part of wherever it has lived. Mobility of the whole begets restlessness of the parts, and the cords of union are too delicate to stand the strain of frequent upheaval. The result is deplorable. The school and the church are vainly taxed with the attempt to perform the functions proper to the home, but neglected by it—possible to it, indeed, only as it preserves for a connected period of considerable length the character of an unbroken circle. It is both pitiable and ludicrous to listen to the thoughtful and animated discussion of the great modern pedagogic problem, How shall English be taught? A great step toward its solution will be taken when the question is re-stated: How shall the school manage to do the work of the home or how shall the latter be made—forced or induced—to perform its proper tasks? A similar re-statement is at least as necessary in the case of moral training. Abdication does not lift burdens; it only shifts them.

Considerations such as these, often only half-defined, lie at the basis of our envy of that golden mean of English society which for generations has combined progress with stability. To be born and grow up, not simply in a family but in a house rich with memories of ancestral exploits, to be surrounded from infancy to manhood, if not to old age, with walls whose echoes are mellow with time, to be unable to turn without seeing or to walk without touching objects whose intrinsic value, however great, or whose beauty, however rare, is trifling when compared with the priceless train of associations that has ennobled them with sacred emblazonry, is to receive, decently and in order, and long before college age, an education, a personality, and a character beside which our careful and exact entrance requirements are the meagre and hurried babblings of a child. We may as well recognize at once that no professional programme of education can do more than make a noise and keep up appearances while the real programme, unwritten and incapable of formulation, is slowly coming into being. When that perhaps far-off, certainly divine, event occurs, professional programmes will begin to find their use and to be successful. Meanwhile, one discovers now and then a group of Americans who have determined, grimly enough, to be so un-American as, like Napoleon, to be ancestors in lieu of having them; to give up the annual jaunt from one eating and sleeping place to another; to curb the instinct for adventure and new things; and, choosing finally for all the long future, to be content to give up novelty for growth, to substitute for the habitual mover's airy nothing a local habitation and a name.

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NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

The death of Samuel L. Clemens ("Mark Twain") has served to increase the interest in first editions of his books among collectors, and a bibliography of his writings is now promised. This will be published by the Harpers this autumn. It has been compiled by Merle Johnson, a San Francisco artist now living in New York, who has been for several years bringing together and studying the books of Mark Twain. He has gone at the work in a most careful manner, and has made a number of important bibliographical discoveries.

Beginning with "Innocents Abroad," Mark Twain's books were for many years published by the American Publishing Company of Hartford, Conn., who were at the time the largest publishers of subscription books, and who had hundreds of agents in all parts of the country. Stereotype plates were made and copies printed off as the sale demanded. As the first issue was small, in some cases only a few hundred, and as later issues from the plates generally carried the same date, and were, for the most part, indistinguishable, collectors have, through want of information, been satisfied oftentimes with a later issue of several of the books. Mr. Johnson's bibliography will give the typographical points by which the correct first issues can be distinguished. He has procured, so far as the records at Washington can give them, the actual dates when copies were filed for copyright. Then, by wide searching and examination of copies on the market, he has made efforts (and with considerable success) to find copies bearing a manuscript date of purchase or presentation, inserted by a former owner, as nearly as possible to the actual copyright date. Having thus fixed the first issue he has, by examining other copies, discovered points of difference. In a few cases, though thousands of copies were printed, no distinction can be found between early and later issues other than possibly broken or injured type, but often important variations have been brought to light. Mr. Johnson's set, from which his bibliography has been prepared, and which will, in the language of the bibliographer be known as the "type" set, has been sold by him to a firm of book-sellers in this city, and, by their courtesy, and with Mr. Johnson's consent, we are able to give particulars about a few of the more important books.

Mark Twain's first book was "The Celebrated Jumping Frog of Calaveras County, and Other Sketches," published in New York in 1867. His second book, "Innocents Abroad," was published in Hartford in 1869. Of these two books Clemens wrote about the end of 1870, as follows:

> I fully expected the "Jumping Frog" to sell 50,000 copies & it only sold 4,000; & I only expected the "Innocents" to sell 3,000 copies, but it astounded me by selling 85,000 copies within sixteen months—which, I am told, is the largest sale of a four-dollar book (price is $3.50 to $5.00—$4.00 about the average) ever achieved in America in so short a time.

Now, it is not probable that the publisher was much more sanguine than the author as to the sale of the book, and it is not likely that the first printing exceeded one thousand copies; but, as the above letter shows, 85,000 were sold "within sixteen months." As these were all printed from the same plates, and, for the most part, at least, if not entirely, dated 1869, the problem has been to identify that first printing. The book was printed hastily, and in the earliest copies no page numbers are given in the Table of Contents for chapters xlvi to lx, although the proper page numbers of the earlier chapters are given. At the bottom of p. xviii also the word "Conclusion" in the summary of the contents of the chapter was omitted. These omissions were afterwards supplied, that page being reset, probably in the second printing. Besides these errors which are in the preliminary leaves, an equally important variation is found in the text. The lower portion of p. 121 is, in the earlier copies, blank, while in later copies a portrait of Napoleon III is printed in the space. This made the number of illustrations actually 235 (if our count of them is correct) instead of 234 called for on the title-page.

In "Sketches New and Old" (1875) the first edition contains at bottom of page 299 a short sketch headed "From 'Hospital Days.'" In some copies there is found an errata slip, pasted on this page: "By an error of the publishers the above sketch 'From "Hospital Days"' was inserted in this book. It should not have been, as Mark Twain is not the author of it. It will not appear in any future edition." In later editions the lower half of this page is blank.

In the first edition of "The Adventures of Tom Sawyer" (Hartford, 1876) there are sixteen preliminary pages, pp. ii, iii, x, and xiv being blank. In later issues, in order to save a half sheet of paper in each copy, the frontispiece was printed on the reverse of the half-title, and the Contents begins on the verso of the Preface, making twelve preliminary pages only in the book. The page-numbers were, however, not corrected.

Equally interesting points about "The Gilded Age," "A Tramp Abroad," "Life on the Mississippi" (1885), and "Adventures of Huckleberry Finn" (1885) will be given in Mr. Johnson's bibliography, as well as variations in several of the less important volumes.

John Camden Hotten, the English pirate, early began reprinting books and magazine articles by Mark Twain. "The Innocents Abroad" was issued by him in two parts, the first with this title, and the second with the title "The New Pilgrim's Progress." "Screamers" and "Eye-Openers" were two volumes of selections from Mark Twain's contributions to the *Galaxy*, issued in 1871 by Hotten. Several of the authorized English editions were actually the first. Thus "The Tramp Abroad" was published in two volumes by Chatto & Windus in London on December 13, 1879. The American edition, in a single volume, was not copyrighted until March 13, 1880. Both are dated 1880 on the title-page. Several Canadian editions also are of first edition value. "Old Times on the Mississippi," published in Toronto in 1876, contains the larger portion of "Life on the Mississippi," not published in book form in the United States until 1883.

Many books of humor contain one or more sketches by Mark Twain, some being often repeated. Mr. Johnson has endeavored to procure and describe all containing the first appearance of any sketch in a book.

No extended set of first editions of Mark Twain has ever been catalogued or sold at auction. The copy of "Mark Twain's Memoranda," Toronto, 1871, in the Johnson set, is the one which brought $33 at Anderson's in March, 1909. This is, we believe, the highest price so far paid for a Mark Twain item at auction, but many rarities have never come upon the auction market.

In "Extracts from Adam's Diary" (New York, 1904) the author says: "I translated a portion of this diary some years ago, and a friend of mine printed a few copies in an incomplete form, but the public never got them." So far as can now be traced "Adam's Diary" was first printed in "The Niagara Book" (Buffalo, 1893), filling pp. 93-109, and in this form it went through several editions. Was there a privately printed edition, or had the author's memory failed him when he wrote this note in 1904?

Especially during his later life, Mark Twain was often called upon to speak at annual dinners of societies and other gatherings, political or social. Many of these speeches were extemporaneous, and very few were ever published by him. Mr. Johnson has gathered newspaper reports of a large number of these speeches, and it was from his collection that the volume of Mark Twain's "Speeches," just published by the Harpers, was mainly compiled. He has also gathered, as excerpts from periodicals, a large collection of magazine articles by Mark Twain, some of which have never been collected, and a mass of newspaper anecdotes, reports of interviews, etc.

Correspondence.

THE ATTORNEY-GENERAL AND THE CABINET.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your comment on Dr. Elroy M. Avery's seventh volume ("History of the United States and Its People," *Nation*, August 25) you call attention to his mistaken view that the attorney-general became a Cabinet associate first in 1870, the year in which the Department of Justice was organized with the attorney-general at its head. As you say, truly enough, "that officer was in practice a member of the Cabinet from the beginning." The fact was clearly recognized on April 28, 1870, when, in the course of the debate in the House of Representatives on the proposed Department of Justice, one speaker (Hon. William Lawrence of Ohio) declared that "since the establishment of the office of attorney-general the attorney-general has been a member of the Cabinet by usage just as much as any head of a department" (*Globe*, 41st Congress, 2d sess., pt. iv, 3067). There is a good deal of scattered evidence on the point. I am not aware that it has ever been briefly summarized.

The first clear record of what we term "Cabinet meetings" is given by Thomas Jefferson ("Jefferson's Writings," ed., P. L. Ford, I, 165, V, 320 ff). From this it appears that on April 11, 1791, in accordance with Washington's instructions of the previous April 4, the Secretaries of the three departments (State, Treasury, War) and Vice-President John Adams met to discuss various problems concerning the government. Washington himself at the time was absent from Philadelphia, the seat of government; and Edmund Randolph, attorney-general, was not at the meeting. On March

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31, 1792, there is record of another Cabinet meeting, held this time at the President's. The three Secretaries and the attorney-general were present (*ibid,* I, 189). In 1793, a year notably full of difficult problems of administrative policy, Cabinet meetings were frequently called, and it is probable that, as a rule, Randolph, as attorney-general, attended these meetings. According to Timothy Pickering's memory, Washington once declared in Pickering's presence that he had made Randolph a member of his Cabinet "from the first" (C. W. Upham, "Life of Timothy Pickering," III, 226). In December, 1816, Monroe thus stated his view of the usual practice to William Lowndes: "The attorney-general has been always, since the adoption of our government, a member of the Executive Council, or Cabinet" (*Annals of Congress,* January 21, 1817). In 1818, while Richard Rush was in England, he was impressed by the fact that the English attorney-general was never a member of the English Cabinet: "In the complicated and daily workings of the machine of free government throughout a vast empire, I could still see room for the constant presence of the attorney-general in the Cabinet" ("Memoranda of a Residence at the Court of London," 2d ed., 1833, p. 63).

For many years after 1789 the attorneys-general were not as frequent and regular attendants at Cabinet meetings as the Secretaries. The office was below that of the Secretaries in dignity, as well as in compensation. The salary of the attorney-general was only $1,500 at the outset, and was not made equal to the salaries of the other principal officers until 1853, when all the members of the Cabinet were paid $8,000. Many of the early attorneys-general down to Caleb Cushing (1853-1857) were engaged in private practice while serving the government as Federal officers. A few of them, notably William Pinkney (1811-1814), actually lived away from the seat of government. There was a vigorous movement in Congress in 1814 to make a statutory residence requirement, which would compel the attorney-general to reside at the seat of government during the session of Congress. The increased duties of the office inevitably enforced the residence obligation, as time advanced. In 1830 Webster expressed himself as favoring private practice for an attorney-general so far as leisure allowed it. Caleb Cushing, on the other hand, took a strong position against it in 1856. I am informed on excellent authority that the attorneys-general up to very recent years have engaged to some extent in private practice. I should be interested to know whether to-day, in case the attorney-general found his salary of $12,000 inadequate and decided to take a small amount of private practice, he would be violating any custom or rule of honor in doing so.

HENRY BARRETT LEARNED.

Cornwall, Conn., September 12.

THOREAU'S KNOWLEDGE OF BIRDS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The review of Thoreau's "Notes on New England Birds," in your issue for August 11, makes so many criticisms on Thoreau's ornithological abilities that I am moved to arise in his defence, even though I may seem to be putting myself in the position of the wife who permits no one but herself to find fault with her husband. For I really thought, and still think, that I said in my Preface almost all that need be said in adverse criticism of my author's ornithology, and I hoped that reviewers and other readers would devote themselves to appreciation rather than detraction! But let us take up the reviewer's charges *seriatim.* (First, however, I will mention that the statement in the second sentence that "the text of the book has been drawn from the fourteen volumes of Thoreau's Journals, and from six of his formally prepared works" is only partly correct, since, as is plainly stated in the Preface, only the Journal is drawn upon.) After saying that "the index of the present volume shows that about 140 different species of birds are treated specifically or incidentally in the text"—120 would be nearer the actual number—the reviewer goes on to remark that "probably not less than 250 species were Thoreau's neighbors or visitors during the two years he lived on the shore of Walden Pond." These figures will, I am sure, strike most ornithologists as unwarrantably large. For more than thirty years, for instance, I have been observing birds rather carefully in an inland town not many miles from Concord, and my list at present numbers 155 species. I should like very well to meet the additional 95 species that "probably were Thoreau's neighbors" during those two years, but I cannot imagine what they could have been. Of the species particularized by the reviewer as "strangely enough" unknown to Thoreau, the yellow-breasted chat and the orchard oriole are very rare in eastern Massachusetts and it is likely that neither of them ever visited Concord; the house wren, even before the advent of the English sparrow, was only locally common in eastern Massachusetts, and, according to Mr. William Brewster, was rare in Concord; the crested flycatcher, according to the same authority, is one of the rarer birds of Middlesex County; the piping plover was known to Thoreau, who found it on Cape Cod, but was not included in this volume because the references to it in his Journal were slight and of no particular significance; the night heron, though abundant on the coast, is not a particularly common bird inland; the yellow-billed cuckoo is at Concord near the northern limit of its range and doubtless much less common than the black-billed; and the Virginia rail is included in the book (on page 80); while the various shore-birds and ducks named have until within the last dozen years or so been considered as belonging exclusively to the province of the hunter and not to be observed by mere "observers."

The reviewer gives illustrations of "incompleteness" and "inaccuracy." It may be admitted that "bar" would be a better word than "spot" for the white on the nighthawk's wing, but let me point out that Thoreau was recording an *impression* of the bird as seen in flight, and was not giving a scientific description of its markings. As to the two habits of the nighthawk which apparently escaped his attention, can we be sure that he really did omit to notice them? It is hardly fair to take it for granted that Thoreau recorded in his journal *everything* he knew about birds. Again, in the scarlet tanager passage alluded to, Thoreau was not *describing* the bird, but merely contrasting it with the red-winged blackbird, and had no occasion to mention the color of its tail. The entry for March 10, 1852, which recorded hearing "for the first time" the chickadee's "phœbe note," evidently meant the first time that year, for, as appears on the preceding page, he knew that note as early as 1838. Thoreau's confusion of the hermit and olive-backed thrushes with the wood thrush is well known. It seems curious to us to-day, of course, and yet by no means unaccountable when we consider that the olive-back was entirely unknown to Nuttall and that Wilson supposed the hermit to be songless! As stated in a foot-note in the book, Thoreau knew the hermit thrush by sight and detected it occasionally during the migrations.

The reviewer also seems to think it strange that Thoreau did not know that "the Cooper's hawk and the sharp-shinned hawk, because of their industrious destruction of game birds and song birds, are not entitled to the admiration which he expresses for hawks in general." To this it may be replied that the facts in regard to the food habits of the several hawks were unknown to science till the government ornithologists reported the results of their investigations some twenty-odd years after Thoreau's death. But how little appreciation of Thoreau's attitude towards nature is shown by one who imagines that his admiration for the hawks could have had the slightest connection with their economic value!

Let it be understood that I am not complaining of your reviewer's treatment of the book itself or its editor. I owe him hearty thanks, rather, for his generous commendation of the plan and execution of the volume. This letter is simply a reply to what seem to me to be unwarrantable strictures on Thoreau's ornithology.

FRANCIS H. ALLEN.

Boston, August 26.

[The statement in the Preface concerning the source of the text is that "these notes are from Thoreau's Journal," not "only" from the Journal. Elsewhere in the Preface it is said that "the matter included in Thoreau's more formal works . . . is not inconsiderable, though it amounts to less than one-twelfth as much as that contained in the Journal. For the convenience of readers a full index of it is given in an Appendix to this volume." Hence the confusion. But it does not seem grossly unjust to estimate Thoreau's knowledge of birds from more than eleven-twelfths of all that he wrote about them. We did not say that the birds which "strangely enough" Thoreau did not mention, were *common* about the shores of Walden Pond; but none of them, we believe, is unknown in the region with which Thoreau was familiar, and each of them is described by Wilson, upon whose "Ornithology" (together with that of Nuttall) Thoreau "chiefly relied," according to Mr. Allen. We were not aware that "the various shore-birds and ducks named have until the last dozen years or so been considered as belonging to the province of

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the hunter and not to be observed by mere 'observers,'" nor does Thoreau seem to have regarded this restriction, according to the contents of the first four chapters of Mr. Allen's book, whose headings are "Diving Birds," "Gulls, Terns, and Petrels," "Ducks and Geese," and "Herons and Rails." The comparison of the scarlet tanager with the red-winged blackbird (p. 325) is not the particular mention of the former bird to which we referred. On the next page Thoreau refers to the tanager as "the surprising red bird," and twice more on the same page as "the red-bird," and again (p. 327) as "bright scarlet with black wings, the scarlet appearing on the rump again between wing-tips," and yet again (pp. 328-9), "a deep scarlet, . . . in the midst of which his pure-black wings look high-colored also." And never a mention of the black tail. As to the chickadee's "phœbe note," the entry reads as follows: "March 10, 1852. Heard the phœbe note of the chickadee to-day for the first time." The reference on the preceding page, "Dated only 1838," does not seem to make it clear that he was referring definitely to the chickadee.—THE REVIEWER.]

PROFESSOR LAMBERTON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: On Thursday, September 8, William A. Lamberton, senior professor of Greek at the University of Pennsylvania, died at his summer home at Mount Pleasant, New Jersey. For several years he had had trouble with his heart, but the end came after a very brief illness. He was born in Philadelphia sixty-one years ago, and graduated at the University of Pennsylvania, receiving the degree of master of arts in course in 1867. The year following he was instructor in mathematics and then went to Lehigh, where he was successively instructor in mathematics, professor of Greek and Latin, and professor of Greek. In 1888 he returned to the University of Pennsylvania as professor of Greek, a position which he held up to the time of his death. During these twenty-two years Professor Lamberton had an important part in the administrative work of the university. At one time or another he was chairman of every important committee in the college, as well as dean of the college and of the Graduate School. He was especially well fitted for administrative work, where his knowledge of precedent and his great memory stood him in good stead, and it is here that the university will feel his loss most keenly. He was a great reader but published comparatively little. He was especially interested in Thucydides, bringing out editions of the sixth and seventh books (1886), and of the second and third books (1905). In 1894 his alma mater honored him with the degree of Litt.D. He was a man of keen perception, of sane judgment, a thorough scholar, and a true friend. WILLIAM N. BATES.

Philadelphia, September 16.

THE COLLEGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Professor Trent's article in the *Nation* of September 8 deserves to be widely read. It is especially timely in view of the attacks on the colleges that are now so much in fashion, and which for awhile will be the more popular as a result of the ill-considered and vicious character of some of the assaults made before the National Education Association at its recent meeting in Boston. Ill-advised people are likely to attribute to these assaults, seemingly sanctioned by the association, greater value than the character of the critics warrants. It therefore behooves the broader-minded and more conservative members to appear before the public in their true light.

The colleges, it is true, have been—passively, if not actively—responsible for the objurgations now hurled at them; and a few no doubt deserve all that is said. But these few are not, and never have been, representative. The most violent of the critics of the colleges denounce them for not doing what they were not created to do, and what they have never tried to do—give a "practical" training for the ordinary man's life work. It may be that the "American college," with its "impractical" cultural courses, has had its day, and must be supplanted by an institution more in keeping with the present American spirit. But to forget what it has done, and to denounce it for what it is not doing, is like turning upon one's mother and rending her because the milk which nourished the child no longer flows for the man.

GEORGE S. WILLS.

Baltimore, Md., September 14.

"SOUTH" OR "SOUND."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent's letters on *South or Sound in "Twelfth Night"* call to my mind Wordsworth's poem, "Michael," published in 1800, though, of course, Wordsworth may have had Pope's emendation of the First Folio directly under his hand. The words beginning at line forty-six are as follows:

And in his shepherd's calling he was prompt
And watchful more than ordinary men.
Hence had he learned the meaning of all winds,
Of blasts of every tone: and oftentimes,
When others heeded not, he heard the South
Make subterraneous music, like the noise
Of bagpipers on distant Highland hills.
The Shepherd, at such warning, of his flock
Bethought him, and he to himself would say
"The winds are now devising work for me"!

GEO. G. KENNEDY.

Readville, Mass., August 23.

"HEART OF HEART."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The fact that I have been a reader and subscriber to the *Nation* for above a quarter of a century speaks for my appreciation of the welcome weekly. It is not often that I find a slip, but may I draw your attention to the first column in yesterday's *Nation*, when in speaking of Mr. Taft you say, "in heart of hearts"? The phrase is derived from Shakespeare ("Hamlet," act iii, scene ii):

Give me that man
That is not passion's slave, and I will wear him
In my heart's core, ay, in my heart of heart.
As I do thee.

Strange to say, I found that Bartlett's "Concordance to Shakespeare" has omitted this under "Heart." OTTO KLOTZ.

Ottawa, August 20.

Literature.

COLONIAL VIRGINIA.

Institutional History of Virginia in the Seventeenth Century: An Inquiry into the Religious, Moral, Educational, Legal, Military, and Political Condition of the People. Based on original and contemporaneous records. By Philip Alexander Bruce, LL.D. 2 vols. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $6 net.

In the volumes which Mr. Bruce has written on life in Virginia in the seventeenth century we have an encouraging sign of the passing of the old-fashioned local history. Mr. Bruce is not only a local antiquarian, but also a student with an eye to the larger aspects of his subject. He is familiar with the methods of the scholar and aims to apply them in handling even the smallest details of county and parish life, and he never loses sight of the general in dealing with the particular. Until similar work has been done for all sections of the colonial area, generalizations on colonial psychology and institutions will be but tentative.

In the volumes before us Mr. Bruce includes all subjects that he could not bring into his former books on economic and social life. These subjects are religion and morals, education, legal administration, military system, and political conditions, including taxation, and all are presented with skilfulness of treatment, vividness of description, and excellence of style. Some confusion results from the absence of a chronological arrangement of the matter, and at times one wearies of the frequent repetitions as the author runs back and forth over the same field; but the text is generally interesting, the pictures presented by the minute details are always realistic, and the information with few exceptions is new and valuable. Sometimes Mr. Bruce adds unnecessarily to the length of his volumes by passages where the dim and silent shades, and the pulse of the ocean tides, get inextricably mixed with dragons and other mythical beasts. Sometimes, also, in his loyalty to his State, he allows the Virginian to overshadow the historian, and forgets that the scholar has no right to be either cavalier or roundhead; but the bias is too evident to be harmful, and the reader can generally determine the truth for himself.

The facts for his history he has drawn, in largest part, from the records of the county courts, hitherto imperfect-

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ly known. Unfortunately, the great bulk of these records for the seventeenth century have been destroyed, largely through the ravages of war. Only about 130 volumes remain intact, where originally there were probably not less than 500, or even 1,000. With two exceptions, no records of the counties lying along the east bank of the James below Richmond have been preserved, and even in one of these instances they are complete only for the last few years of the period. That these official and semi-official records prove all that Mr. Bruce thinks they do, is not so clear; some of the evidence seems to be insufficient for the assumptions based thereon, while in other cases, such as the keeping of the Sabbath, it seems to show that the law was honored rather in the breach than in the observance. Certainly, among the body of the people there was no very high order of morality or religion. There was a great amount of bastardy, slander, and drunkenness, and the very frequency of the charges and the heaviness of the punishments only serve to show the prevalence of the practices. On the other hand, Virginia can take a just pride in the fact that, unlike Massachusetts and Connecticut, she never hanged a person for witchcraft. Credulity and superstition existed commonly enough among the lower classes, but flogging and ducking were the only punishments for so-called sorcery. The fact that in some instances the accused was fined for defamation bears witness to the intelligence of the colonial justices. What Mr. Bruce has abundantly proved is that, among those who made the laws and sought to enforce them, a high sense of right and justice everywhere prevailed.

The chapters devoted to education, libraries, and culture are illuminating. Mr. Bruce shows that there was plenty of education in Virginia, and that Berkeley's famous remark thanking God that there were no free schools in Virginia is false if applied to schools in general. One is inclined to wonder, however, whether Berkeley was not thinking of public schools, such as existed in the municipal towns of England. Virginia had no schools maintained at the public charge. Her children were educated in England or by private tutors and private schools in Virginia. When Berkeley made his report there were two private schools, the Symmes and the Eaton, less than a day's journey away from where he lived, and it is hard to believe that the old Governor would have deliberately lied about the matter. Mr. Bruce is very hostile to Berkeley, the Stuarts, and the Restoration generally, and uses language that is almost as intemperate as that of Berkeley himself. The old Governor was irascible, dictatorial, and a bully, but he was not a liar, and his remark may mean nothing more than that he was opposed to popular education, either through public schools or the printing press.

Mr. Bruce has a great deal to tell us about wealth, culture, and intellect, but he does not make it sufficiently clear that these characteristics were confined to the few. His tables determining the degree of illiteracy deal only with the capacity to write, and prove nothing as regards the extent of education. That one woman in three could sign her name and three men out of five could do the same does not prove that half the white population were educated or were habitual readers. Probably not a tenth of the whole had any adequate learning, and the evidence presented is conclusive that wealth, knowledge, and power were in the possession of only a hundred or two heads of families in a population of from twenty-five to fifty thousand inhabitants. Many of these planters were more highly cultured than any but the very best in New England, but it is equally clear that the generality in the North were better educated than the generality in the Southern colony.

A large part of Mr. Bruce's volumes is taken up with minute descriptions of the clergy and the parishes, the law courts, militia and defence, and the political organization. His descriptions of buildings, procedure, officials, and the habits and customs of daily life and practice are always good. His chapters on lawyers and physicians are likely to lead to some revision of opinion regarding the practice of law and medicine in the colonies in the seventeenth century, and the inventory that he gives of a law library (Spicer's) shows a collection of legal works that probably could not have been duplicated anywhere in the colonies at that time. The fact that many of Virginia's leading men were educated or trained in England and had to know English law, in order to practice in the Virginia courts, undoubtedly led to a higher development of legal knowledge in Virginia than was customary elsewhere. Mr. Bruce is justified in his high opinion of the county courts and of the justice dispensed there. Of his account of the military system and its operation only praise can be given. In fact, wherever he is dealing with institutions that do not involve his prejudices or his political views, he is at his very best. It is only when he treats of the Stuarts, of popular liberties, of the tyranny of taxation without representation, and of like shibboleths of the older historians, that he loses control of his pen and sinks both the Virginian and the historian in the rhetorician.

To write authoritatively of the larger aspects of his subject, Mr. Bruce should have made a more adequate preparation. His failure to do so is manifest, and some of his omissions seem unpardonable. In his preface he says that he has personally examined all the original documents in England; in point of fact, he has not done so, having confined his attention to a few leading collections. Toward printed authorities his attitude is even more striking. He seems to assume that for Virginia history only Virginia writers are to be trusted, and for other history any writer will do. How else can we interpret his omission of every modern authority on English constitutional history and his citation of Blackstone as his only source of information? What can we say of a writer on early colonial history who has made no use of Fitz Roy's "Acts of the Privy Council," the "Calendar of State Papers, Domestic" and "Treasury," the Reports of the Historical Manuscripts Commissions, Beer's "British Colonial Policy," Andrews's "Guide," and "British Committees, Commissions, and Councils"; who prefers Brock's "Abstract" to Miss Kingsbury's complete text of the proceedings of the Virginia Company; and who, though mentioning Osgood's "American Colonies" in his bibliography, has manifestly made no use of it in the body of the work?

The result is inevitable. The treatment of English history and of England's government of the colonies is characterized by a looseness of phrase and a want of precision that are very unfortunate in a work of such high quality and so many excellencies within its own field. For example, Mr. Bruce tells us that in 1606 the local units in England were the "Town or Tithing, composed of ten families, and the Hundred composed of ten times ten," and that the Hundred was the unit for judicial, military, and political purposes alike (II, 287-8); that "the members of Parliament in the seventeenth century were drawn only from the highest social class" (II, 435); that "In England, government by an Assembly was fully tested between 1649 and 1651, and ended in failure" (II, 263); that no import duty on liquor was imposed until after 1671 (II, 581); and that in 1832 the House of Commons became a body in which the whole population was represented (II, 632). Not one of these statements is correct. The further statement that "down to the reign of Queen Mary the imposition by the King of a new duty on imports and exports without the consent of Parliament was illegal" (II, 235), while it may be justified, according to Hallam, in reality deals with a question that is far too uncertain and complicated to be dismissed in so abrupt a manner. The control over indirect taxation in England was not determined until the seventeenth century. An occasional minor error discloses itself, as in the statement that the Puritans rejected the sacrament of baptism (I, 260), and that Charles II, who died in February, 1685, complained of the acts of an assembly sitting in Virginia the

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same year (II, 328). Possibly, Mr. Bruce in the one instance was thinking of the Quakers, and in the other of Charles's successor, James.

Of all Virginia's external relations those with England were the most important. Mr. Bruce fully recognizes this fact, and frequently refers to it, devoting one entire chapter to the "English Board of Control." The subject had already been dealt with by Beer, Osgood, and Andrews in the works mentioned, the last named particularly describing the system from 1622 to 1696 in his "Colonial Self Government" and "British Committees, Commissions, and Councils." To none of these works does Mr. Bruce refer, although Beer and Andrews have drawn on sources of information in England of which Mr. Bruce is not aware. Inasmuch, therefore, as he has contented himself with such documentary evidence as he happened upon in his search for Virginia material, his account is meagre in the extreme and wanting in accuracy and precision. In the score or more of places in which he refers to the board of control, hardly any of the terms are correct for the date given. He uses "Council," "Commission," "Committee," "Board" indiscriminately, and, on one page (II, 362), uses three different terms for the Board of Trade, two of which are wrong and the third unusual. One would suppose, also, that Mr. Bruce would have thoroughly familiarized himself with the provisions of the Navigation Acts, but from two or three references to the penny-a-pound duty on tobacco (II, 588, and elsewhere) we infer that he has not connected it with the well-known "plantation duty" imposed by 25 Charles II, since he deems it a purely Virginia matter, levied as a substitute for the ten shilling colonial duty of 1660. In many other instances, as well, Mr. Bruce betrays the insufficiency of his knowledge of the connections with the mother government, and unfamiliarity with sources of information that were quite accessible to him. His work marks a splendid advance in the method of treating local history, but he has not kept abreast of the work of others in the larger field.

CURRENT FICTION.

An Affair of Dishonor. By William De Morgan. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

Alas, for the "new De Morgan book," for which an affectionate public has been so impatient! "An Affair of Dishonor" would never have won that public, and will hardly restore the enthusiasm dampened a trifle, it may be, by the cool prosing of "It Never Can Happen Again." Other "Joseph Vances" and "Alice-for-Shorts," we might have done without; there was a touch of archaism about them that gave one second thoughts. But "Somehow Good" was different: "Victorian" still, no doubt, on the surface, but essentially fresh and modern in plot and character. It seemed to open a field for the new old romancer. Then came the record of those protracted and inconclusive philanderings of a distinguished author and his aristocratic flame—put an end to in a way which surely "never can happen again." The wholesome, nice, simple-hearted middle-class people who are good enough for the foreground of the earlier tales here took a second place; and Blind Jim, lineal descendant of Christopher Vance, became a mere instrument of fate. He did not accept the rôle without a struggle, and his little daughter is the most moving of all De Morgan's child-heroines.

There is no child-heroine in "An Affair of Dishonor," no group of simple, breathing, lovable people, even in the background. It is a Restoration romance, not better than its kind—beginning with a duel, and ending with an appropriate end for the villain. The plot is simple, even meagre. A country gentleman's daughter is betrayed by a court wit and blade. He is already married; she becomes his mistress. He is challenged by the father and deliberately and unfairly kills him. He (the villain) whisks her away and conceals his deed. When she finally discovers the fact, she tries to hate him and to leave him, but can do neither. A duel with her brother has no direct result; the villain is finally got out of the way by accident, or fate; and we have no inkling as to what is to happen to the heroine after that. We do not greatly care; for this Lucinda Mauleverer, mistress, and later wife, to the wicked Sir Oliver Raydon, is not of that charming sisterhood which Mr. De Morgan has begotten—she bears, at most, a dim and ghostly resemblance to them. Her beauty, her devotion, her piteousness, do not come home to us with a pang—she is one of the romantic, pathetic Lucies of fiction, and nothing more. As for Sir Oliver, he is a straight descendant of Orlando's uncompromising brother—before the conversion. He is such an unmitigated rascal as stories are made on. Before the end, we are assured that something human has come into his character, but we do not feel it: he remains a chimæra, a bogey. The original thing is that no hero is offset against him; there is no knightly one for the fair Lucinda to meet late, but not, in the event, too late. Her black Oliver remains the one man for her.

In the background of the action is an element of the mysterious and the supernatural, such as existed in "Alice-for-Short." Sir Oliver is haunted by a dream, and killed by its apparent realization. Mesmerism plays a part in the story, under the name of witchcraft. Pathology has also its share. A man stricken blind is restored to sight by a sudden shock. Sir Oliver himself is an epileptic, and has a fit for every crisis in the action. Yet more characteristic of the author is the continual play of minor mystifications in the dialogue. Difficulties are cleared up by a piecing together of details in themselves petty. It is all very ingenious; but unfortunately one has in this instance, even more strongly than in connection with "It Never Can Happen Again," the conviction that the game is not worth the candle—for Mr. De Morgan, at least. We can but hope for a return from this invented matter and artificial style to an unabashed "Victorianism," from which, it should appear, the author is trying to escape. Better far the manner of Dickens than that of S. R. Crockett!

One Braver Thing. By Richard Dehan. New York: Duffield & Co.

In spite of certain crudities and banalities, this book is one of interest and even of distinction. Its chief merit lies in its vivid narration of the siege and relief of Ladysmith, thinly disguised as "Gueldersdorp." The account is written entirely from the English point of view, but it is difficult for a description so graphic to escape the touch of partisan bitterness. One seldom finds absolute and impartial justice save in the passionless columns of statistics, and it is by balancing the evidence of those of each side who have written it in their own blood, that we come near to the truth. There is some fine character-drawing in the book, and one familiar with the personnel of the English army in South Africa can recognize a few salient portraits. As regards the plot, one is occasionally driven to marvel at the appalling denseness of these good people in crises of the affections. Tradition, however, forbidding the course of true love to run smooth, it is out of the question that the author should permit it, though he be compelled to wrest his characters to his will by sheer force.

The Varmint. By Owen Johnson. New York: The Baker & Taylor Co.

Mr. Johnson has caught the high spirits of boy life and is able to express them in a volubility of amusing slang that would bring a blush of envy to the most high-spirited youth of his beloved Lawrenceville. His theory of style is expressed in the very modern epigram of Dennis Finnegan: "The Superiority of the Superlative over the Comparative." Dennis, when he utters this rhetorical doctrine, is coaching Dink Stover, the varmint, in the secrets of successful school conversation:

"Try me again," said Stover, laughing.

"Say, Dink, did your mamma kiss you good-by?"

"Sure, Mike," said Stover instantly;

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"combed my hair, dusted my hands, and told me not to talk to fresh little kids like you."

"Why, Dick, come to my arms," said Dennis delighted. "A No. 1. Mark 100 for the term. That's the trick."

"Think I'll do?"

"Sure pop. Of course, there are times when the digestion's jumping fences and you get sort of in the thunder glums. Then just answer, 'Is that the best you can do to-day?' or 'Why, you're a real funny man, aren't you?' sarcastic and sassy."

"I see!"

"But better be original."

"Of course."

"Oh, it's all a knack."

There is good fun in the book, not without manly sentiment at the end, but one wonders at times whether, to be funny, it is necessary to make a jest of class-room cheating and of swindling imitations of stock-jobbery. And after all, however hot ginger be in the mouth, there is something honorable and interesting in life, even school life, besides "seeing red" on the football field. One compares Mr. Johnson's boys with the boys of Hughes's Rugby, or, to take a modern instance, Mr. Vachell's Harrow, and asks whether the lower moral and mental tone of Lawrenceville is due to its situation in America or to its portrayer. Mr. Johnson would probably call such a question priggish.

Mad Shepherds, and Other Human Studies. By L. P. Jacks. Henry Holt & Co. $1.20 net.

Among the points of superiority which honesty must compel the patriotic observer to note in current English fiction, is the greater freedom of method employed. Almost without exception the American writer seems to think he must convert his material into something unrecognizable. He is so much afraid of being accused of photography or phonography that he strains a point to disguise beyond possible recognition his sources and his models. In a finished work of art mere material must suffer some sort of sea-change, but, in fiction certainly, there is no set rule by which that change is governed. And the unfinished or casual sketch has its own merits: it is a pleasure for the patient novel-reader to be permitted to escape now and then from the tyranny of the plot. The English are less afraid to let themselves go in this respect than we; consequently we get from them every season a number of books which are all the more refreshing because their category must remain a trifle in doubt. Glanced at superficially, the book in hand would be disposed of as a series of anecdotes about a number of real persons in a rural English community. But a proper reading shows them for studies in a worthy sense. No doubt the persons and incidents involved are real; but they are presented by means of a sympathetic imagination which lifts them above mere fact. Whether one uses the word sketch or story in connection with them is a matter of indifference.

The book, with its compound of rustic portraiture and mysticism, has something approaching the flavor of Hawker's "Footprints of Former Men in Far Cornwall." Three persons are chiefly concerned: a parson's wife, a shoemaker, and a shepherd. These three the writer celebrates as the notables among a parish of four hundred. Their graves, he says, are worthy "to be counted among the resting-places of the mighty." The parson's wife, Mrs. Abel, is, the writer confesses, "too great a subject for such humble portraiture as he can attempt," but her presence in the background, a figure strong, beautiful, and subtle, has much to do with the impressiveness of the book. It is she who, almost alone among human beings, has power over Shoemaker Hankin, atheist and ranter, and over the yet more difficult "Snarley Bob." The latter was a breeder of prize rams, a misanthrope, and a mystic. The larger part of the sketches are given to the delineation of his strange character, and, as we have intimated, the result has an effect of portraiture rather than of the mere accumulation of "human documents."

GREEK RELIGION.

Cults of the Greek States. By Lewis Richard Farnell. Vol. V. New York: Henry Frowde.

The publication of Dr. Farnell's fifth volume completes what will probably long remain the fullest and the most sane treatment of its theme. The general characteristics of the work have been considered in previous reviews in these columns. The present volume deals with the cults of Hermes, Dionysus, Hestia, Hephæstus, Ares, and the minor deities. It follows the scheme of its predecessors: the entire evidence for the history and diffusion of each cult and for the character of its ritual is collected; speculative hypotheses concerning its origin and ultimate meaning are passed in review and soberly judged; and the testimony of the monuments is studied in amply illustrated chapters dealing separately with the cult images and the more ideal representatives of artistic sculpture.

The student of literature will be chiefly interested in the considerable part of the volume that is concerned with the cult of Dionysus, "one of the most attractive in the whole investigation into the religion of Hellas." Dionysus was not originally the wine god, but a Thracian divinity of vegetation whose worship penetrated into Greece after the main order of the Olympic hierarchy had been fixed. Homer mentions him but four times. The story of Lycurgus in a late stratum of the sixth book of the Iliad does not symbolize the resistance of skeptics to the new religion, but is, like the tale of Pentheus in the "Bacchæ," a primitive passion play, in which the priest embodies the deity. The pursuit of the "nurses of Dionysus" by Lycurgus is ritualistic. The cult contained chthonian and ecstatic elements from the beginning, and took on further traits of mysticism and enthusiasm, beautifully described by Pater in his "Study of Dionysus," as the god became in the imagination of his worshippers, more specifically associated with the vine. He was received into fellowship with Apollo at Delphi as the god of poetic inspiration and to some extent of prophecy, though he had no direct part in the oracle. He entered Attica by way of Icaria and later Eleutheræ, and became the patron of tragedy. But the fundamental, older qualities persisted. The wild trieteric festivals on Mount Parnassus and elsewhere could not have symbolized the *annual* death of vegetation. Mr. Farnell offers the ingenious new suggestion that they typify the rotation of crops in two-year cycles. However this may be, they did not preclude other, annual rites designed to awaken the god of vegetation from his wintry sleep, or to celebrate the reappearance and renewal of his gifts.

The four Athenian festivals are now recognized as distinct, though Mr. Farnell thinks that the Lenæa is merely the Athenian equivalent of the rural Dionysia. These midwinter festivals could not stand in relation to the wine as such, but were a survival of rites devised to strengthen the failing spirit of vegetation. The word Lenæa is derived, not from ληνός, "the wine-press," but from Λῆναι, "the wild women." The Anthesteria, on the other hand, is a celebration of the date when the new wine became drinkable. The first two days were devoted to popular revelry, and the festival, as a whole, therefore, cannot have been originally a mournful all souls' feast, as Miss Harrison fancies. But the primeval ghost-ceremony called the χύτροι, or "pots," "became attached to the Anthesteria as a mournful *finale*."

The great spring Dionysia in honor of Dionysus Eleuthereus was probably established in the sixth century, when the town of Eleutheræ came into the Athenian state, perhaps making the acceptance of its cult one of the conditions of annexation. Tragedy, which properly and originally belongs to the Lenæa, was transferred to this joyous spring festival by Peisistratus for reasons of policy and convenience. Tragedy did not originate in the dithyramb, which was not dramatic; nor can it have been at the beginning essentially satiric. The

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note of wailing and lamentation must always have predominated. This would seem to make plausible the theory that tragedy originated in funeral chants and mourning for the dead. But this view fails to account for the name. It is the "goat song," or song of the "goat man," "for the obvious etymology is sometimes the true one." The rustics of modern Thrace still perform a rude passion play in which the participants wear goatskins. This survival, Mr. Farnell thinks, points back to an "old Thraco-Grecian mummers' play, in which a divine figure in a black goatskin kills another divine figure who is the fair or bright god." Originally a sad, winter rite, it could easily be transferred to spring "for convenience," and the substitution of other heroic personages for the principal figures would yield the beginnings of tragedy. Its service of purification and delivery from evil influences through mimetic song and dance, relieving pent-up passion, is the original function of *catharsis*, whose primary religious significance Aristotle's secular thought tries to define as merely medical.

We cannot here discuss the treatment of the other deities studied in this volume. The final chapter on minor cults is excellent, but all too brief. And, indeed, we could wish that in the compass of so large a work Mr. Farnell had found space to tell us more of the higher religious aspects of the Greek cults, and also of the development of the more personal and exotic religions. But it is idle to quarrel with an author's delimitation of his own subject.

The most learned scholar will sometimes slip, as Homer is said to nod. And we may conclude with two slight instances in which Mr. Farnell's erudition seems to us in fault. Speaking of the so-called stones of insolence and shamelessness in the court of the Areopagus, Mr. Farnell suggests that the idea may be that the insolence and shamelessness of the denial of the charge infected the stones. But surely it is only the stone of insolence (ὕβρις) which belongs to the defendant. The accuser took his stand upon the stone of "shamelessness," which is not shamelessness, but ruthlessness—the refusal to listen to the appeal for pity or pardon. Again, we cannot believe that in the hymn to Hermes, l. 572, there is a satiric intent, or that the meaning is that he, "even without a bribe, will give man a gift, by no means the least of gifts, the gift of release from life." That seems too modern an idea for an Homeric hymn, though, to be sure, it is found in Herodotus. The gift of honor which Hades gives is the honor bestowed upon Hermes, and ἄδοτος "though he receives no gifts," merely expresses the thought of the great line from Æschylus's "Niobe":

Of all the gods, death only loves not gifts.

Memoirs of Gustave Koerner, 1809-1896. Life-Sketches Written at the Suggestion of His Children. Edited by Thomas J. McCormack. Two volumes, xvi+628 and x+630 pp. Cedar Rapids, Iowa: The Torch Press. $10.

The great German emigration between 1820 and 1850 brought a new order of settlers to our shores, an order of patriots and thinkers fresh from the halls of German universities, and inspired with republican ideals. In the early years of the Reaction came Carl Postl (Charles Sealsfield), Carl Beck, Carl Follen, and Franz Lieber. The Revolution of 1848 sent us Carl Schurz and men of kindred spirit. The lives and times of Sealsfield, Follen, Lieber, and Schurz have become familiar to American readers through their biographies. But the middle stage of these thirty years of unrest, namely, the July revolution of 1830, with the events growing out of it, has not been hitherto so graphically presented to the American public in the biography of a great German American. This gap is now well filled by the Memoirs of Gustave Koerner.

The long lifetime of Koerner, extending from 1809 to 1896, embraced most of the stirring events of the nineteenth century. Born in the free city of Frankfurt-am-Main, three years after the battle of Jena, he witnessed, as a boy of four years, the entrance of the Allied Monarchs with their armies into Frankfurt in 1813; he entered the Musterschule at the age of seven, and later the Gymnasium, where he had as his companions Heinrich Hoffmann, the author of "Struwwelpeter," and von Leonhardi, the philosopher and interpreter of Krauss. In his school days came the Philhellenic enthusiasm of 1821, during which his father was chairman of a patriotic Greek society in Frankfurt, and his brother Fritz enlisted to join the Greek patriots. His life at the university of Jena, which he entered in 1828, was a barometer of the political feeling of the time. The new patriotic ideal of the Burschenschaft, which was active in Jena while Koerner was there at the university, enlisted his interest more than did his studies. The new ideal was highly national, whereas that of the old Landsmannschaften was provincial; the motto now was not Bavaria, Prussia, or Saxony, but a United Germany. The favorite authors of the Jena period were Börne, Heine, Alexander Everett, Shakespeare, Goethe, and Byron, with "Faust" as the student's Bible.

After he had entered the University of Munich Koerner's studies were interrupted by the famous *Emeute* of Christmas Eve, 1830, in consequence of which he was arrested and spent four months in prison in Munich. Koerner turned his steps, in 1831, to the old Ruperta Carola Heidelberg, the university of his first love, where he took his degree in jurisprudence the next year. The Burschenschaft was still active in aiding the refugee Poles who passed through after the fall of Warsaw. Revolution was in the air; in May, 1832, came the famous Hambach Festival, in which some 30,000 or 40,000 enthusiastic German Liberals participated. From the ruins of the old castle, demolished in the Peasant Wars, sprang, phœnix-like, the free spirit of the ancient Germans, and it seemed for a moment as if the great Völklerfrühling had dawned upon the slopes of the Haardt. The revolutionary propaganda went on in the Liberal newspapers, until it broke out afresh in the Frankfurt Attentat, April 3, 1833. Koerner had meanwhile begun the practice of law at Frankfurt, but his old patriotism made him one of the chief actors in the Attentat. Further stay in Frankfurt was impossible, or at least unsafe, and Koerner, finding his way to France, embarked at Havre for New York.

Then comes the new epoch of the German refugee in America—a long and deeply interesting story of the journey from New York to Albany, from Albany to Buffalo by canal-boat, around the lake to Cleveland, and from Cleveland to the Ohio by canal, thence down the Ohio to St. Louis. This region had but recently been made famous through the travels of Gottfried Duden, and many Germans had settled in St. Louis and in Belleville, Ill. Having selected Shiloh, a small place under the influence of the "Latin Farmers," Koerner prepared to practise law. Notwithstnding his Heidelberg doctorate, he attended the Transylvania University at Lexington, Ky., to prepare for admission to the bar. His first case against Capt. Snyder showed him to be a peer of his opponent, and won for him later the confidence, co-partnership, and friendship of Snyder, and thereby opened to him the political avenue through which he rose to the Supreme Bench and Lieutenant-Governorship of Illinois.

The war clouds of Secession were already gathering. In 1837 Koerner entered practical politics, gained his first lessons in American finance in the great crisis of 1839, took part in the Presidential campaign for "Tippecanoe and Tyler Too," was electoral messenger to Washington in 1841, member of the Illinois Legislature in 1842, and, having taken his seat upon the Supreme Bench, participated in the discussion of the Fugitive Slave Law, of the Mormon question, the questions arising out of the annexation of Texas and the war with Mexico, the German agitation of political reform, and the secularization of American institutions by Carl Heinzen. He was made Lieutenant-Governor in 1852, prepared the bill to prevent treason and sedition in 1861, organized a German

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regiment at the outbreak of the war, succeeded Carl Schurz as Minister to Spain in 1862, was appointed on the Railroad and Warehouse Commission in 1871, took an active interest in the Tilden campaign, and celebrated the golden Jubilee of his Heidelberg doctorate in 1882.

In many respects these memoirs form a notable, if not the most notable, German American biography. They were written in hours of leisure, when the memory was free to pick up minute incidents of earlier years, and they offer a wealth of descriptive and personal details to the history of that great century of German culture which transformed American educational ideals under the touch of German spirit, and brought the German and American peoples into close cultural kinship and international accord. Apart from a few trifling inaccuracies in names of societies and a certain paucity of dates, there is little to criticise in the Memoirs. The criticism of Grant's generalship in the war and of his winking, or supposed winking, at the sale of arms to France during the Franco-German war, will be easily understood.

Mysticism in Heathendom and Christendom. By Dr. E. Lehmann. Translated by G. M. G. Hunt. London: Luzac & Co.

"If all that is mystical were mysticism, who, then, could write a book about it?" This is our author's very sensible question. And after asking it, he proceeds to write a book of 293 small pages with the prodigious title quoted above. In a general way, the greater part of the vast field indicated is covered. Thus there are chapters on primitive mysticism, Chinese mysticism, Indian, Persian, and Greek mysticism, mysticism in Greek Christianity, in the Roman Church, in Protestantism, and recent undenominational mysticism. It could hardly be expected that all these chapters would be equally good. And as it happens, the treatment of what are perhaps the two most important types of mysticism—the Indian and Roman Catholic—is particularly poor; our author's enthusiasm over Protestant evangelical theology preventing him from entering into the spirit of the Upanishads or seeing any good thing in the Catholic Church. Plato and Plotinus also suffer —"pagan speculation" being almost as severe a reproach as Roman superstition. There is no chapter on Hebrew mysticism, for the Old Testament worthies were too good and evangelical to be mystics. On the other hand, a whole chapter is devoted to "Luther's Mysticism"—apparently because Luther was *not* a mystic.

The chief value of a book of this kind should be to give the beginner a clear idea as to what mysticism is. Indeed, a book that should do that would be a decided desideratum to others than beginners, for few words in our careless language are so over-used and so misused as "mysticism." In fact, it should seem as though a conspiracy had been formed by all sorts and conditions of men, from the ward politician to Professor Münsterberg, to deprive the word of all its meaning by seeking to make it mean everything. The first few pages of Dr. Lehmann's book lead us to hope that here we are to have an antidote to this loose and indiscriminate use of the term, and that some definite and appropriate meaning is to be given it and maintained consistently throughout. But before many pages, the word acquires so many inconsistent but "essential" characteristics that almost anything may be said of it. We cannot here even enumerate the points on which such conflicting statements are made, but one or two of them must be mentioned. Thus, on page 7, it is said: "The mystic knows no personal God. Personality has limitations, therefore away with personality, both in God and in man." This assertion is many times repeated. In fact, there is perhaps only one other thing in the whole book that comes out so clearly—namely, that the "true" mystic knows a personal God and knows Him very personally. The conclusion of the book is:

> There is but one faith and it must be personal; and there is but one truth and it must be apprehended personally. This is the last word and essence of all mysticism, proclaimed throughout the ages with no uncertain sound (p. 292).

Such inconsistent statements are made, often on the same page, that it is difficult to discover whether Dr. Lehmann thinks mysticism a good thing or a bad thing. "True Christian mysticism," we are told on page 152, "is an inner life lived in Christ; it is one of the greatest things in Christianity." Yet the true characteristics of mysticism cannot grow on Christian soil (p. 106); Jesus was in no sense a *mystic* (p. 102); and mysticism is repeatedly identified with magic, asceticism, ecstasy, abstract thought (!), "intuition," formalism, Roman Catholic superstition, and pernicious Greek philosophy. Since the time when Luther said the last word on all the important questions of theology, "not much remains of the imaginary God and the imaginary relationship to God which has been the life of mysticism. . . . Together with *intelligence* and *ecstasy*, *asceticism* also vanishes, that last remnant of the mystical inheritance cherished by the mystics of all ages."

When the gentle reader who has hopefully read up to the last page closes the book, he is likely to feel that mysticism may indeed be a very wonderful thing, but that neither he nor Dr. Lehmann has any clear and exact notion as to what it really is.

L'Anima di Francesco Crispi. Carteggio intimo sulla politica del risorgimento italiano con proemio e note biografiche di G. Pepitone-Federico. Palermo: Ant. Trinarchi.

A decade has not yet passed since the death of Francesco Crispi, but if one may judge by the public conscience of Italy, his place in history is as securely established as that of Mazzini, who was his early master in politics, or that of Garibaldi, whose administrative right hand he was in 1860, or that of Cavour, among whose successors he alone stands out as capable of strong government. He and Zanardelli were the last of that picturesque line of Italian ministers born of the revolution and educated in conspiracy whose high patriotism was above question, but whose claims to leadership were frequently based rather on prominence in past sufferings in prison and exile than on mental superiority or preëminence in the science of government. For the purely revolutionary period Crispi's work, though important, was secondary; but for the period of national education and reconstruction that followed, his record of virile statesmanship is very different from the easy mediocrity which in Italy, as in most countries, has characterized the increasingly democratic parliaments of the last half century. His services to Italy are far, however, from having been exactly defined; the materials by which they must be judged lie largely buried in state and private archives, and notably among his own voluminous papers, for the purchase of which the Italian government has been carrying on lengthy but as yet unsuccessful negotiations. During Crispi's life a single stout volume of his collected political writings and speeches was published. At the death of parliamentary leaders it has been usual, recently, for the Italian government to print their collected speeches; but in Crispi's case no such publication has been made. Nor has any volume of his correspondence appeared until now.

Pepitone-Federico's volume is an unpretentious but important publication of 250 pages, containing nearly one hundred of Crispi's letters, all of them abundantly annotated and the greater number addressed to Baron Vincenzo Favara between the years 1861 and 1867. Favara was an old anti-Bourbon conspirator of the city of Partanna, in the province of Trapani, republican in political creed, and therefore a supporter of the Italian parliamentary Left, a close friend of Crispi, and the one to whom more than to any other the latter owed his first election as Italian Deputy, from Castelvetrano, in 1861. The letters are intimate, to a limited extent re-

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lating to private interests of Favara with which Crispi was entrusted, but for the rest given up almost exclusively to politics. They belong to a period of Crispi's life, which, while not embracing that in which he attained the supreme power of the state, is yet of the first biographical importance; it is the period in which his own parliamentary character was formed, and in it he figures as the leader of the parliamentary Left, and, as vice-president of the Chamber of Deputies; the statesman is revealed here in his earlier political battles, with the characteristics and motives which were exhibited throughout his public life.

What first impresses the reader of the letters is Crispi's moderation and sound political sense. Frequently characterized as violent and revolutionary, he is seen here in the rôle of a conservative among the politicians of the Left, preaching union and concord, recommending patience, and imposing respect for law and order upon turbulent partisans who are, at times, eager for the barricades. He is a good hater, but his is a sober hatred. As a member of the Opposition, he is consistently hostile to the measures of the Governments which rapidly succeed one another. They are all "ruining" Italy. But his oft repeated remedies are patience and the ballot. In 1862, he writes: "Ministers go, and with them disappear the evils which they have caused. The country remains, and we should work, that it may strengthen itself and become powerful." And again in 1865: "I can only censure the Italian Government. It has been stupid and wanting in foresight, and the people have reason to protest. Nevertheless while we have a right to better the government, it is not politic to destroy it." He dwells particularly upon the melancholy events and deplorable conditions in Sicily, whose two most critical moments were those of the abortive campaign of Aspromonte in 1862, and of the insurrection of Palermo of 1866. He was expected to participate in the former, but waited; at its abrupt close, its promoters hoped that he would encourage riotous protest, but instead his letters contain such counsel as this: "I must write to you that it is necessary to be calm, and to prevent the least tumult from breaking out. In constitutional governments, reactions are precarious: ministries are not eternal, and with their change, their policy is altered and liberty returns in honor." If Crispi's statesmanship has led critics to term him somewhat of a Jacobin himself, it is clear that he was earnest and judicious in restraining Jacobinism in others.

He necessarily discountenances the mad attempt at revolution engineered by roughs and hot-heads in Palermo in 1866, but when the rest of Italy indulges in indiscriminate vituperation and defamation of Sicily in consequence, his voice is raised in dignified defence of his native island. He is seen as a loyal Sicilian, but is free from Sicilian sectionalism, repeatedly denouncing as absurd all thought of Sicilian autonomy. His great passion is the welfare of *united* Italy and to it he has sacrificed his Republican theories. His affirmation "The republic divides us, the monarchy unites us," became a patriotic slogan. Writing in April, 1862, he declares:

> Having accepted the monarchy, so as not to foster dualisms, and to have unity, it is just and expedient to be Royalists and good constitutionalists. And I will say to you that I shall remain such frankly, loyally, so long as the King shall be for Italy. Should he desert the national cause, should the monarchical principle fail in its mission, then I should have the right to abandon the monarchy from the same motive from which I have accepted it.

It was Crispi's moderation, his loyalty, and good sense, his immovable Mazzinian faith in the potential greatness and glorious future of Italy—these qualities abundantly illustrated in the letters—which, united with a strong will and firm political convictions, won for him wide popular respect and support throughout Italy, and enabled him in his leadership to pursue a vigorous and definite policy. These same qualities eventually carried him to the highest office in the state, in which his administration of both foreign and internal affairs was memorable. Pepitone-Federico's preface offers a fair appreciation of the letters; his notes, which give sketches of the various men referred to, are most useful, but the editor's judgments are too prejudiced and too superficial to be of historical value.

Notes.

The great Centenary Edition of Dickens, which Chapman & Hall of London have been publishing, is now to be issued in this country by Scribners. Three volumes, containing "Oliver Twist" and "Sketches by Boz," have already appeared, and other volumes will follow at the rate of three a month. In completeness of text and illustration this edition is in a way definitive.

Charles and Marie Hemstreet, who have already written several books on Old New York, now have a volume on "Nooks and Corners of Old London," which will be issued this autumn by James Pott & Co.

"A Dictionary of Oriental Quotations" and "A Dictionary of Abbreviations" are to be added to Swan Sonnenschein's books of reference series.

Late in October the Century Company will bring out a new volume by Charles H. Caffin giving "The Story of Spanish Painting." The same house is preparing a new library edition of Sloane's "Life of Napoleon Bonaparte," to be in four octavo volumes, with seventeen maps and thirty-two illustrations. The text will be increased by new matter to the extent of more than a tenth.

"Christ and His Critics," by the Rev. F. R. Montgomery Hitchcock, is in the hands of Robert Scott. Dr. Max Nordau is publishing with Rebman "The Meaning of History," which contains chapters on Society and the Individual, Eschatology, and the Psychological Roots of Religion.

"The Passing of Empires, 850—330 B. C.," or Vol. III of "The History of the Ancient Peoples of the Classic East," by Sir Gaston Maspero and edited by Professor Sayce, has been translated by M. L. McClure and is to be issued by the Society for the Propagation of Christian Knowledge, which has also, among its announcements, a work on the beliefs of the ancient Egyptians, entitled, "The Book of the Dead," by H. M. Tirard; "Messianic Interpretations, and other Studies," by Canon R. J. Knowling; "An Introduction to the History of the Assyrian Church," by Dr. W. A. Wigram, and "The American Church," by Archdeacon Dowling, with an Introduction by the Bishop of Salisbury.

Scribners have in their list of books for September: "The French Revolution: A Political History," by A. Aulard, professor of letters at the University of Paris. Translated from the French of the Third Edition, with a Preface, Notes, and Historical Summaries, by Bernard Miall; "Popular Law-Making: A Study of the History and the Tendencies of English and American Legislation," by Frederic J. Stimson, professor of comparative legislation at the Harvard Law School; "A Motley," by John Galsworthy; "Mr. Dooley Says," by the author of "Mr. Dooley in Peace and in War"; "The Old Virginia Gentleman, and Other Sketches," by Dr. George W. Bagby; "A Painter's Progress," by Will H. Low; "The Town Down the River," a book of poems, by Edwin Arlington Robinson; "The Blue Arch," by Alice Duer Miller; "Open Water," by James B. Connolly; "The Spread Eagle, and Other Stories," by Gouverneur Morris; "The Star-Gazers," by A. Carter Goodloe; "Lady Good-for-Nothing," by Sir A. T. Quiller-Couch; "The Boy's Drake," by Edwin M. Bacon; "By Reef and Trail, Bob Leaches' Adventures in Florida," by Fisher Ames, jr.; "A Cadet of the Black Star Line," by Ralph D. Paine; "Cupid's Cyclopedia," compiled for Daniel Cupid by Oliver Herford and John Cecil Clay; "Argentina," by W. H. Hirst, with an introduction by Martin Hume; "Tramps in Dark Mongolia," by John Hedley, F.R.G.S.; "Madame De Montespan and Louis XIVth," by H. Noel Williams; "The Romance of a Medici Warrior: A Study in Heredity," by Christopher Hare; "The Gun and Its Development," by W. W. Greener, new and revised edition; "The True Chatterton," by John H. Ingram; "The Dogaressas of Venice" (the wives of the Doges), by Edgcumbe Staley; "Turner's Sketches and Drawings," by A. J. Finberg; "The Story of Old Japan," by Joseph H. Longford, professor of Japanese at King's College, London; "A Voice from the Congo," by Herbert Ward; "Peter Pan," by J. M. Barrie; "The New Gadshill Dickens"; "Romantic California," by Ernest Peixotto; "The Great Pacific Coast," by C. R. Enock; "The Intimate Life of Alexander Hamilton," by Dr. A. McL. Ham-

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ilton; "The French Renaissance in England," by S. Lee; "Turkey of the Ottomans"; "Original Narratives of Early American History," published under the auspices of the American Historical Association; "Mediæval Italy, from Charlemagne to Henry VII," by Prof. P. Villari; "France Under the Republic," by J. C. Bracq; "Morituri" (three one-act plays), by H. Sudermann, translated by A. Alexander; Sudermann's "Roses," translated by Mrs. T. Frank, and "The Joy of Living," translated by Edith Wharton; the Poems of Eugene Fields; "The Conflict Between Collectivism and Individualism in a Democracy," by C. W. Eliot; "What Is Art?" by J. C. Van Dyke; "Soul and Circumstance," by S. B. Stanton; "A New Shakespearean Dictionary," by R. J. Cunliffe; "A Defence of Prejudice, and Other Essays," by J. G. Hibben; "Privilege and Democracy in America," by F. C. Howe; "Rest Harrow," by Maurice Hewlett; "Tales of Men," by Edith Wharton; "The Finer Grain," by Henry James; "The Barrier," by René Bazin; "Philippa at Halcyon," by K. H. Brown; "The Married Life of the Frederic Carrolls," by J. L. Williams; "The Fugitive Freshman," by R. D. Paine; "The Silent Call," by E. M. Royle; Robert Louis Stevenson's Works (popular edition).

"The Letters of Elizabeth Cady Stanton: An Epistolary Autobiography" is under preparation by Theodore Stanton and Mrs. Stanton Blatch, who will be glad to receive copies or the originals of any of Mrs. Stanton's letters. Any communication on the subject should be addressed to Mr. Theodore Stanton, Rue Raynouard, Paris. The book will be published in the spring by Putnams.

Harry Peyton Steger of Doubleday, Page & Company is literary executor of W. S. Porter ("O. Henry"), and would be glad to have the use of any documents bearing on the writer's life or work.

A fourth volume of Macmillan's new Library Edition of The Works of Walter Pater brings to our table the "Imaginary Portraits," not the best work of Pater, unless we except from that criticism the clear beauty and fine analysis of the study of Watteau in "A Prince of Court Painters." The edition, when complete, in ten volumes, will leave nothing to be desired in the way of type and page, although the paper might be of a harder texture.

In a long series of chapters, Miss Florence MacCunn has sketched the lives of "Sir Walter Scott's Friends" (Lane). She has already to her credit what many readers have thought the most interesting brief life of Mary Queen of Scots, not to mention her study of John Knox, and the present volume shows the same skill, turned now to lighter uses, in gathering anecdotes and pointing a moral. Occasionally, it is true, she is forgetful of the probable ignorance of her audience, assuming for instance that all her readers will be familiar with the details of the great Douglas trial, and at other times jostling together the names of cousins and aunts and uncles of a family in a way to throw any but a Scots genealogist, that is to say, any but a true Scotsman, into gasping bewilderment. But these blemishes are few, and indeed the charm of the book for the most part is that it brings us into familiar friendship with a host of old Scottish ladies, Edinburgh advocates, antiquarian lairds, and great folk, whom we had got to know, but not so well as we should like, in Lockhart and other writers of memoirs. Some of the material is from printed sources, but a good deal of it Miss MacCunn has drawn from stores of unpublished correspondence. Great names occur. In the first chapter we find Mrs. Cockburn writing of Hume: "But the reason David did not know he was a Christian was a total want of fire—ethereal fire. He was phlegmatic, material, and, I daresay, will now wonder he is alive and to know (*sic*) what nonsense he wrote"; and the last chapter deals with the friendship of Scott and Wordsworth. But the lesser names, with the exception of the always delightful Lady Louisa Stuart, afford, if anything, more amusement than the greater. Scott himself appears, of course, continually. Beyond its burden of entertainment the chief merit of the book is the light it throws on the genesis of Scott's poems and novels. His was the guiding genius in their production, and without him nothing like them could have appeared, but it is true also that without this society and this atmosphere of romance and antiquarian research about him his work would have been incalculably poorer. There is some meaning in the humor of Miss Grant of Rothiemurchas, who, being for some reason splenetic on the subject of Sir Walter, used to read the Waverleys in order "to find the anecdotes and 'good things' purloined from William Clerk and Sir Adam, and to complain peevishly that there was no acknowledgment to these old friends."

The Old Testament volumes of the International Critical Commentary (Scribner) which have so far appeared (those on Genesis, Numbers, Deuteronomy, Judges, Samuel, Amos and Hosea, Psalms, Proverbs, Ecclesiastes, and Esther) illustrate a change of attitude in orthodox scholars, English and American, that has been going on for a generation. Almost all the writers of the Old Testament commentaries in the series are members of orthodox communions; they are drawn from all the leading Protestant bodies in this country and England, and, whether orthodox or not, they all agree in their general critical views. The old "apologetic" tone has disappeared; nothing is said of "inerrancy"; the method and content of inspiration are held to be determined by the facts; if historical errors and legendary and mythical narratives are recognized the conclusion of these orthodox scholars is that the Holy Spirit has chosen to employ just this vehicle to convey instruction. It is not that there is less reverence—there is only freedom from hampering theories. At the same time these volumes are marked by careful attention to the Hebrew text, and by the use of all literary and archæological aids for the explanation of the material.

Dr. John Skinner has dealt ably with the numerous perplexing questions connected with the book of Genesis. Recent publications on this book abound in theories, historical, ethnological, mythological, and to thread one's way through the maze of hypotheses and possibilities requires a cool head as well as much labor. Dr. Skinner does not pretend to have solved all the problems that arise, but he states them clearly, gives the various considerations that have been offered on one side and another, with references to authorities, and makes judicious comments on the arguments; his volume is thus an excellent summary of the views held on Genesis at the present day. His own conclusions are presented so forcibly that they must command the respect of the reader. In general he holds that Genesis is not literal history. The mythical material in chapters i—xi, he thinks, was derived from Babylonia, even though in some cases, as in the story of the dispersion at Babel, no Babylonian parallel is known. He admits the possibility of an historical kernel in the legends of the patriarchs, though this, he adds, is not proven. In regard to the persons of the patriarchs he properly makes a distinction between Abram and the others—the latter are tribal names, but Abram is doubtless a real person, though it is impossible to construct him historically; Dr. Skinner goes beyond the record and the probabilities when he regards him as representing "a decisive act of the living God in history." Among many admirable sections in the volume special mention may be made of the discussions of the cosmogonies, the site of Eden, the Cain legend, the flood, and the fourteenth chapter. Here and there, as in the comments on the temptation in the garden and on the dispersion-story (chap. xi), modern religious ideas are read into the text. Dr. Skinner upholds the division of documents into Yahwistic and Elohistic against recent objections based on the discrepant employment of divine names in the versions.

In company with the majority of recent critics Prof. Edward Lewis Curtis, who edits the volume on Chronicles, regards this book as an imaginative recasting of the material of Samuel and Kings from the point of view of the later ritualism (about 300 B. C.); he distrusts the analyses that seek historical sources outside of our canonical books, and he thinks it probable that the book of Chronicles is the work of a single author. He does not find that it adds genuine historical material. The questions involved are discussed fully and fairly. Professor Curtis having been disabled by illness and a partial loss of eyesight, some of the work of the commentary was undertaken by Dr. Madsen, who has performed the task excellently.

Up to now no Arabic text of "Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves" has been known to scholars, and it has even been suspected that none such existed and that Galland made up the story. Now, however, Prof. D. B. Macdonald of Hartford has been fortunate enough to unearth a Bodleian manuscript (noted in Ethé's catalogue, which is still unprinted), and has published it in the Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society for April of this year. It appears to be a relatively modern redaction of a genuine folk-tale, not free from colloquialisms and queer constructions, and not the manuscript from which Galland translated, though allied to it. Professor Macdonald has wisely given the text intact, only correcting a few glaring errors. It is satisfactory to have what appears to be a genuine Arabic text of this famous story, with peculiarities of vocabulary and grammar that may furnish a contribution to the history of the Arabic language.

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Interesting reminiscences of Bismarck's youth and valuable records of his early development are given in Hedwig von Bismarck's "Erinnerungen aus dem Leben einer 95 jährigen," just published by Richard Mühlmann in Halle. The author was a cousin of the celebrated statesman, and both spent their childhood together at Castle Schönhausen and were very fond of each other. She speaks of herself as an extremely prosaic character, but adds that this trait did not prevent her from being as a child a favorite playmate of Otto, who was so strongly attached to her that if she had measles, whooping-cough, or any other contagious disease, he wished to catch it and share it with her. She also sought to imitate the conduct of the wild and foolhardy boy, and was told by her mother that if there was any folly of which she was ignorant she would soon learn it from Otto.

Frederick Meakin fringes the audacious when, in the preface of "Function, Feeling, and Conduct" (Putnam), he boldly confesses that ethics can never be younger than Aristotle. Such radical conservatism is a rare novelty among Harvard doctors, of whom Mr. Meakin is one. His book, however, is better than its promise. It attempts "a fresh statement of the philosophy or general basis of morals as grounded in human nature." It moves from the universe to man, in quite the Aristotelian spirit, though more openly than the Stagirite. The world is one; every effect has infinite causes, and every cause infinite effects; final causes are everywhere, and matter itself is at heart organic in some occult manner. Such considerations, with which the author is prodigal, give us our bearings in the ethical situation. There is just enough of contemporary psychology mixed in here to suggest subjectivism; as, for instance, when Mr. Meakin defines an ultimate end as one which is not consciously chosen as means to any ulterior aim. As a critic of hedonism, however, he succeeds in escaping the psychologist's pet error. Here he is at his best. Altogether lucid and convincing is his demonstration that neither feelings nor ideas can serve as the exclusive guides of human conduct; less forcible but attractive is the positive phase of the critique, namely, the contention that not only the goal, but the criterion, of life is "the completest satisfaction of our nature conceived as a composite tendency, in which each constituent has its recognized place." Such a view may, of course, be made much or little of; just how significant Mr. Meakin renders it appears in his conclusion that, after all, virtue is its own reward. "Where the virtue is complete there doubtless its compensation is without hazard or qualification complete." "The moral life is so far justified by its effect in the feeling of the moral agent that we cannot say, speaking of the ordinary social unit, that the virtuous choice is ever, from the hedonic point of view, a mistaken choice." Surely, a broad thesis, this! And one, too, which raises the suspicion that the theorist may be darkly begging the question when "speaking of the ordinary social unit." How do we define this individual, the average or normal man? Had Mr. Meakin given more thought to this and spared himself the hours spent over the oneness of the universe, his defence of the ancient doctrine about virtue would have been much stiffer.

Under the general direction of the Consiglio degli Archivi and the immediate supervision of Cav. Eugenio Casanova, director of the State Archives at Naples, a manual with the title, "L'Ordinamento delle carte degli Archivi di Stato italiani," has been prepared by order of the government. It contains a general description of the material existing in the score of state archives and of the methods of classification and arrangement employed in each. Prof. Pasquale Villari, who is president of the Consiglio, has written the preface, and explains that, although this volume was originally suggested to those preparing for the competitive examinations of candidates for employment in these special libraries, its usefulness is obvious for all having occasion to consult Italian records. With the exception of those at Naples and Palermo, the archives of state are all in northern and central Italy. The scheme excludes the provincial archives which, found only in the south and established under the French occupation, are often of great importance.

Hormuzd Rassam, the Assyriologist, died at Brighton, England, last Friday, at the age of eighty-four. He was born in northern Mesopotamia, opposite the site of Nineveh, in 1826. He joined Austin Henry Layard as assistant in his Assyrian researches in 1845, and lived with him for more than two years. When Layard returned to England Hormuzd Rassam accompanied him to complete his studies at Oxford. The trustees of the British Museum sent Rassam with Layard in a second undertaking in 1849, and Rassam was placed in charge. In 1864 he went to Abyssinia and was made a prisoner and kept in chains for nearly two years by order of King Theodore. He conducted Assyrian explorations again from 1876 to 1882, and at the time of the Turco-Russian war was sent by the British Foreign Office on a special mission to Asia Minor, Armenia, and Kurdistan to inquire into the condition of the Christian communities. He was the author of "British Mission to Theodore, King of Abyssinia," "Ashur and the Land of Nimrod," "The Garden of Eden and Biblical Sages," and "Biblical Lands."

The Rev. Edward Warren Virgin, author and editor of religious, historical, and geological works, and a Methodist clergyman for half a century, died at his home in Dedham, Mass., last Sunday, aged seventy-four years. Mr. Virgin was a delegate to the first world's school convention at Paris. He served on the United States Christian Commission during the civil war and was at the siege of Chattanooga. He was a graduate of Wesleyan University, class of 1857.

The death is reported, in his sixty-seventh year, of Dr. Joseph Ulbrich, who was professor of Austrian public law at Prague. Of his numerous writings may be mentioned: "Lehrbuch des österreichischen Staatsrechts" and "Grundzüge des österreichischen Verwaltungsrechts."

The death is announced, at the age of eighty-four, of the Most Rev. William Dalrymple Maclagan, until last year Archbishop of York. He was joint editor of "The Church and the Age," two volumes, 1870, and published also a volume of "Pastoral Letters and Synodal Charges."

John Ernst Matzke, professor of Romanic languages in Stanford University since 1893, has just died, at the age of forty-seven. He was the author of various text books on French and Spanish.

Science.

COL. ROOSEVELT'S NEW BOOK.

African Game Trails: An Account of the African Wanderings of an American Hunter-Naturalist. By Theodore Roosevelt. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $4 net.

Beside the actual accomplishments of Col. Roosevelt's "great adventure," his written record of it is of secondary importance. Even to-day there are probably a million Americans who still think of the trip as one for "sport"; and many writers of letters to newspapers have said "butchery." As a matter of fact, at the time Col. Roosevelt planned his expedition, the United States National Museum at Washington, in which every loyal American citizen should feel a personal pride, was very poorly provided with specimens representing the African fauna. And now, by one great forward thrust, the African section of that museum is placed in the front rank of zoölogical collections. It is to the credit and benefit of this nation that at last we do not need to apologize to the South Kensington and Berlin museums for our national poverty in important African forms. It must be understood that scientifically the Roosevelt expedition was one of conquest rather than discovery. The measure of success in its real purpose is set forth modestly in the volume before us, but the extent of the scientific discoveries made are as yet only partly known. In due time, Mr. Heller's patient and careful studies of the specimens collected will reveal to us the exact number and character of the species now gathered for the first time by scientific hands; and there is good reason for the belief that among the 6,000 specimens many species new to science will be found. Meanwhile we know that the grand total of mammals was 164 species (not individual specimens), representing six different orders. Of hoofed and horned game, 57 species were obtained and preserved, among which are to be found 9 white rhinoceroses, 11 elephants, 11 common rhinoceroses, 17 lions, 7 cheetahs, 3 leopards, 12 warthogs, 9 giraffes, 10 buffaloes, 10 Grévy zebras, 19 common zebras, 3 giant elands, and 2 bongos. Of antelopes, gazelles, and their allies, 40 species were collected, represented by 305 specimens.

Zoölogically, the most dramatic event of the expedition was the quest for the "white" or square-mouthed rhinoceros. To many naturalists the report that Major Powell-Cotton had

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found that virtually extinct animal alive in the Lado country seemed fairly incredible. In all America there were but two specimens: one skull in the American Museum, and a fine, completely mounted animal in the Carnegie Museum at Pittsburgh. In its South African home, below the Zambesi, it had for about fifteen years been extinct, save for a dozen individuals in a carefully protected area. Its discovery in the Lado Enclave, on the left bank of the Upper Nile, is almost as if our bison never had been known within historic times except in Texas and Ecuador. Like everything else attempted by that phenomenally lucky expedition, the hunt for the square-mouthed rhinoceros was crowned with an abundant measure of success. Nine specimens were taken, of which one pair goes to the American Museum, a head has been given to the National Collection of Heads and Horns in the New York Zoölogical Park, and the National Museum retains a matchless series of six specimens. Col. Roosevelt says:

> It is a curious animal, on the average distinctly larger than, and utterly different from, the ordinary African rhinoceros. The spinal processes of the dorsal vertebræ are so developed as to make a very prominent hump over the withers, while forward of this there is a still higher and more prominent fleshy hump on the neck. The huge, misshapen head differs in all respects as widely from the head of the common or so-called black rhinoceros as the head of a moose differs from that of a wapiti. . . . The muzzle is broad and square, and the upper lip without a vestige of the curved, prehensile development which makes the upper lip of a common rhino look like the hook of a turtle's beak.

The excellent photographs of living "white" rhinoceroses taken by Kermit Roosevelt, six of which are reproduced, are the most valuable pictures of the book. Altogether the illustrations of the volume are abundant and well chosen, constituting an admirable presentation of the wild men, wild beasts, and scenery observed by the great safari.

Col. Roosevelt's observations on the temper and mental traits of large African animals of many species are a source of constant entertainment. Most interesting of all, temperamentally, was the black rhinoceros, whose abounding curiosity led him to charge the hunters nearly a hundred times, but only once, to an absolute certainty, in downright anger. At long range, the eyesight of the rhinoceros is poor, and he does not in the least mind the trouble of charging up to and through a line of porters or hunters, in order to get a good near view of the strange-looking bipeds that so freely invade his domain. This curiosity renders the rhinoceros both disagreeable and dangerous; but the elephant, buffalo, and lion are dangerous because of their bad temper.

The chapter in the appendix on the real merits and demerits of the much-overworked theory of protective coloration, is of keen interest. The author is at some pains to demonstrate, once for all, that "protective coloration" as a deliberate intention on the part of nature, and as a means by which to accomplish a definite purpose, is chiefly theory. In other words, Col. Roosevelt found that, so far from being protectively colored, the greater part of the hoofed and horned game of Africa, as he saw it, is destructively colored. The color patterns of such species as the zebra, giraffe, topi, hartebeest, gnu, and many others tend to render their wearers more conspicuous to their enemies than would have been the case had they been clad in neutral gray or russet brown. Among American hunters of big game, there are few who will dispute the author's conclusions on this subject.

Rebman is bringing out Dr. Berry Hart's "Phases of Evolution and Heredity," and Dr. C. A. MacBride's "The Modern Treatment of Alcoholism and Drug Narcotism."

Prof. H. F. Newall has written for the Society for the Propagation of Christian Knowledge "The Spectroscope and Its Work," and Prof. J. H. Poynting "The Pressure of Light."

The various theories in regard to the glacial erosion of the Alpine valleys are discussed by E. de Martonne in the *Annales de Géographie* for July. In another article he hopes to show that since the beginning of the Quaternary Age this erosion has been more than one thousand metres. This is followed by a study of the "Profiles of the Rivers in France," with especial reference to developing their irrigation and power supply. There is also an extended notice of an extraordinary "Geographical Dictionary of Switzerland," just completed, in six volumes, of five thousand pages, containing 5,181 illustrations and 150 maps, together with lists up to date of post-offices, railways, tramways, steamboats, telegraph and telephone stations.

An important contribution to our knowledge of the formation of coral reefs has been made through the investigations of an island in the Indian Ocean by J. C. F. Fryer, a research student of Caius College, Cambridge, whose report to the Royal Geographical Society is published in the *Geographical Journal* for September. In the discussion which followed the reading of the paper a glowing tribute was paid to the late Prof. Alexander Agassiz, "whose loss to oceanography has been of such serious moment." It was said that he took an extraordinarily keen interest in this expedition, and wrote that Mr. Fryer had "got results of great value." Capt. J. Tilho, head of the French mission to study the difficult geographical problems presented by Lake Chad, gives an interesting account of its condition in 1908 as compared with that in 1904. Parts which were navigable then are caravan routes now, the drying up being so rapid in some parts that "large areas are covered with dead fish." There is no reason, however, to suppose that the lake is likely to disappear, he adds. Referring to the slave trade, which still exists in this region, he says that a thorough coöperation between England and France is absolutely necessary to suppress it. Among the other subjects treated is the Mongolian expedition of the Imperial Russian Geographical Society, in the course of which excavations were made in a "dead town" which yielded a large collection of books, rolls, and manuscripts in six of the languages of the Chinese empire and in an unknown tongue. Prof. E. J. Garwood of University College, London, gives strong reasons, drawn mainly from features of Alpine scenery, to believe that the erosive power of running water and air combined is greater than that of moving ice, which may be protective. This is contrary to the theory maintained by such authorities as Professors Penck and W. M. Davis of Harvard.

A good many points relative to the care of trees cannot be answered by reference to any of the numerous works on forestry. Trees in a city demand treatment which is quite different in some respects from that which is needed in a woodlot or a forest. The serious problems arising from the escape of illuminating gas from the pipes in the street, and the more perplexing inquiry regarding the placing of asphalt or other pavement over the bases of the roots, belong to the city, and not to the country, and the city street commissioner must take them into account. Again, the conflict with pests, both insect and fungal, is rather different in the city from that which goes on in the country; and it is more difficult to spray the trees. In fact, while a treatise on forestry might aid in some ways, it would fall short in many directions. It is, therefore, with pleasure that we welcome a timely work on that special phase of tree culture which concerns our shade and decorative trees. Prof. B. E. Fernow of the University of Toronto has suggested solutions to some of these problems in a handy treatise, entitled, "The Care of Trees in Lawn, Street, and Park" (Holt). There are few persons who can bring to the study of these problems a more thorough or varied training than Professor Fernow, or who have such helpful suggestions to offer. While we cannot agree with him in all of his advice as to the selection of decorative trees, we can assent heartily to all of his counsel as to the treatment of trees which have come to grief in the city. His explicit directions for the employment of insecticides and fungicides leave nothing to be desired, and he utters a word of much-needed caution against one of the worst tree pests now afflicting mankind, namely, the tree quacks of all kinds. In a future edition, Professor Fernow will correct a few infelicities of expression.

The Vienna Academy of Sciences has one of the largest, if not the largest, collection of phonographic records in the world. One of its main objects is to secure a complete collection of dialects, for which purpose expeditions are constantly sent out, the latest being to Nubia. Original work has been done in making use of the phonograph as a sort of acoustic microscope, sections of the records being enlarged a thousandfold. The croaking of a frog, on being thus magnified, was found to differ from the utterance of a human vowel in not

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being a continuous sound, but one with minute interruptions.

Dr. Friedrich von Recklinghausen, whose death is reported from Strasburg, where he was professor of anatomy, had made many discoveries in his field, and written extensively. "Die Lymphgefässe und ihre Beziehung zum Bindgewebe" and "Handbuch der allgemeinen Pathologie des Kreislaufs der Ernährung" are well-known works.

William Harmon Niles, a professor of geology at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, died last week in Boston at the age of seventy-two. He was born in Northampton, Mass. For many years he occupied the chairs of geology at Boston University, Wellesley College, and at the Institute of Technology. He was a member of several scientific bodies and contributed much to scientific literature. He was a graduate from the Sheffield Scientific School at Yale. He was president of the Boston Society of Natural History in 1864, was three times president of the Appalachian Mountain Club, and was president of the New England Meteorological Society for twelve years. He was a fellow of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, of the Geological Society of America and the American Association for the Advancement of Science, and a member of the National Geographic Society, and corresponding member of the New York Academy of Sciences.

Drama and Music.

Edward Sheldon's play "The Nigger" has been printed in book form (Macmillan). A perusal of it confirms the opinions expressed after its first stage representation. It is a clever juvenile work, but too artificial, violent, and indefinite, both in spirit and aim, to have any value beyond that of melodrama.

"Decorating Clementine," the English version of "Le Bois Sacré" of Armand Caillavet and Robert de Flers, made by Gladys Unger and produced in the Lyceum Theatre on Monday evening, proved a disappointment. The original ran for many months in Paris, and was described as a wicked, potent, and witty satire on the French Department of Fine Arts. The New York piece is called a translation, and there is internal evidence that much of the dialogue has been copied literally and skilfully, but the spirit of the representation, probably, has been greatly changed. Comedy has become burlesque, and although there may have been some gain on the score of propriety, the force of the satire has been much diminished. Clementine is a successful novelist and happy wife, who has been content with profit without personal notoriety. When she hears that a rival female writer is to receive the ribbon of the Legion of Honor, she is crazed temporarily by jealousy, and in the effort to procure the honor imperils her own reputation and happiness. Fortunately, she learns her lesson in time and willingly sacrifices her newly born ambitions in order to recover her lost domestic peace. There is the making of a good comedy in all this, but at the Lyceum the acting throughout is conceived in a spirit of burlesque, which destroys all sense of definite purpose or sincerity, while it emphasizes all the inherent weaknesses of the story itself. But there is some clever individual work by G. P. Huntley, Ernest Lawford, Hattie Williams, and others, while the ridicule of the secret social and political wirepulling, which is supposed to account for the distribution of many otherwise unaccountable honors and rewards, is pungent and amusing.

A military drama entitled "The Deserters," produced in the Hudson Theatre on Tuesday night, deserves a note—not at all on its own account, being a machine-made theatrical piece of the poorest sort—but for its introduction of a new star in the person of Helen Ware, of whom a good deal is likely to be heard in the future. Her part, that of a female detective, is worthless in itself, but enables her to display an amount of varied histrionic resource which is uncommon in these days, a genuine sense of acting, a notable power of self-restraint, and a wide range of emotional expression. Her treatment of one scene, in which, amid an accumulation of harrowing circumstances, she has to confess her seemingly base betrayal of the man she would give her life to save, was remarkable for its artistic simplicity and its true eloquence of passionate feeling. There can be no doubt that she possesses natural qualifications of a high order, but she has a good deal to learn yet, especially in the matter of vocal intonation, before she can establish herself in the first rank. It is to be hoped that she will soon find a play more worthy of her abilities.

J. E. Vedrenne starts his new season in the Queen's Theatre, London, this week, with W. J. Locke's play, "The Man from the Sea." Robert Loraine, Arthur Lewis, and Nina Boucicault have important parts.

Gertrude Kingston's new London playhouse, the Little Theatre, which has been built upon the old site of Coutts's bank, in the Strand, will be opened next month with two plays, the longer an adaptation of a comedy by Aristophanes, period B. C. 411, and, as a sharp contrast, a short piece dealing with radio-telegraphy as a detector of crime, A. D. 1910.

Miss Lena Ashwell is to return to America for a season under the management of Liebler & Co. She has agreed to act the part of Judith Zaraine, in a play of that name, by C. M. S. McLellan, author of "Leah Kleschna." She will come to the United States in November, and "Judith Zaraine" will have its first New York hearing in Christmas week.

Ellen Terry will sail from Liverpool on October 19 on the Oceanic, arriving in New York on October 26. On this, her ninth tour of this country since 1883, when she came for the first time with Sir Henry Irving, she will give a series of Shakespearean entertainments, or acted discourses, in the Hudson Theatre, beginning November 3. The titles and the scope of these discourses have been considerably changed by Miss Terry since the first announcement of her farewell visit was made. As now planned they are as follows: "The Heroines of Shakespeare—Triumphant," "The Heroines of Shakespeare—Pathetic," "The Letters of Shakespeare," and "The Children of Shakespeare." After the New York engagement, Miss Terry will make a short tour of the larger cities. Her addresses will be accompanied by illustrative acting, and she will wear Elizabethan costume.

It is plain that in his recent production of "Henry VIII" at His Majesty's Theatre, in London, Sir Herbert Tree has allowed no consideration to interfere with the demands of spectacle. He has provided, it is true, an excellent cast, but the text has been treated ruthlessly in order to save time for the stage show. In itself, of course, the play is invertebrate, more akin to chronicle than to drama, while there are grave doubts concerning the authorship. At all events, it is not especially sacred as a Shakespearean masterpiece. Nevertheless it contains much noble verse, many vital characterizations, and some magnificent situations, and there was a time—in the days of Macready and Phelps, not to speak of the Kembles—when these qualifications, with the addition of fine acting, were deemed sufficiently attractive without the extra bait of kaleidoscopic splendors. It was Charles Kean who first taught how feeble playing might derive reinforcement from the bravery of its scenic surroundings, and his illustrious example has had disastrous consequences. But beyond all question Sir Herbert has composed a superb panorama.

The London critics are very severe—and apparently with good reason—upon Rudolph Besier's adaptation of Pierre Berton's "La Rencontre," which he calls "The Crisis." This is one of those pieces which, manifestly built around a scandalous situation, make an immense pretence of proposing deep moral enigmas. Why a man of Mr. Besier's ability and accomplishment should waste his time in adapting such unhealthy rubbish as this is not apparent. Not even the acting of Evelyn Millard as the self-sacrificing Camille could save the piece from general condemnation. He deserves some commendation, however, for not following the French original all the way through. M. Berton provides a happy ending in which the guilty wife goes off with her lover, leaving her husband to Camille.

Dr. Wilhelm Henzen, who died recently at Leipzig at the age of sixty, though a musician of note, was best known as a dramatist. For many years he was actively connected with the Stadttheater at Leipzig, and his numerous plays, written over the name of Fritz von Sakken, achieved in Germany considerable success.

"The Romance of the Fiddle" is a history of the instrument from earliest times, by E. van der Straeten, which is to be brought out by Rebman.

The "American Musical Directory," compiled and published in New York by Louis Blumenberg, affords a bird's-eye view of musical activity throughout this country and Canada, which is surprising as well as gratifying. It gives the names of musical societies, instrumental as well as vocal, in the cities and towns of all the States, arranged alphabetically, with the names and addresses of the directors, presidents, and other officials, and is therefore invaluable, particularly to singers and players who desire to make engagements for tours. The vocal societies still far outnumber the instrumental, chamber music clubs being particularly scarce; but symphony orchestras and bands abound, and, as regards the

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sexes, one finds in scanning these lists that men play a more active part in musical life than one would imagine from the insignificant number of them in the average concert audience.

Oscar Hammerstein has begun his season of comic opera at the Manhattan Opera House Tuesday night with an elaborate production of Louis Ganne's "Hans, the Flute Player," which was first heard at Monte Carlo, and is now having a run in Paris. The title part is sung by George Chadal, a leading baritone of the Opéra Comique in Paris, for whom the part was originally written, but who was engaged at the time and could not sing it. Miss Sophie Brandt, well known here, returns to sing the part of Lisbeth, the Burgomaster's daughter. Frank Doane, Frank Pollock, George W. Callahan, Alice Gentle, Olive Ulrich, and Blanche Lipton are other members of the company. Jacques Coini, stage manager of the grand opera season last year, is in charge of the production, and the orchestra, chorus, and ballet are those seen last winter. The scenery includes many novel spectacular features.

Myron W. Whitney, one of the most popular singers in the country twenty years ago, died on Monday at Sandwich, Mass. He was born at Ashby, Mass., September 5, 1836. He did not commence the study of music until he was twenty years of age, but made such rapid progress that two years afterward he sang the bass solos in a performance of the "Messiah" at the Tremont Temple in Boston. After singing in oratorios and concerts for ten years with success, he went to Italy and studied with Luigi Vanuccini, director of the Royal Pergola Theatre in Florence. After completing his Italian course he went to London and made a special study of orafario with Randegger. His great triumphs in this country were made at the concerts and festivals of the Handel and Haydn Society of Boston, the New York Oratorio Society, the Cincinnati Festivals of '73, '75, '78, and '80, the Harmonic Festival at Cincinnati in '74, the Harmonic and Männerchor Festival of '75, and the Sängerfest of '80 in the same city, and the recent New York Festival.

Art.

CROWE AND CAVALCASELLE.

A History of Painting in Italy. By J. A. Crowe and G. B. Cavalcaselle, edited, by Langton Douglas. Six volumes illustrated. Vol. I, Early Christian Art; Vol. II, Giotto and the Giottesques, Vol. III, The Sienese, Umbrian, and North Italian Schools. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons; London: John Murray. $6 net each.

A New History of Painting in Italy. From the II to XVI Century. By the same authors. Edited by Edward Hutton. Three volumes, with 300 illustrations. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.; London. J. M. Dent & Co. $5 net each.

The expiry of copyright on this famous book has brought about two new editions, one a complete revision, by Langton Douglas, under the care of the original publisher, John Murray, the other a literal reprint of the original edition with additional annotation by Edward Hutton. For years the old "C & C" was only to be had second-hand and at a high price, now students have the embarrassment of choosing between two editions of this indispensable work. One's prepossessions naturally go to the authorized revision, in spite of the fact that the original three volumes will have begotten six. It is, as the editor declares, virtually a new work. The editor himself is a well-known connoisseur whose specialty is the Sienese school, while the editor of the three-volume reprint, a scholarly writer on Italian matters generally, makes no pretension to expertness. On the side of the reprint evident advantages are the small bulk and price and the larger number of illustrations obtained by grouping small prints on the plates. Before carrying the comparison further the general issue, How should a classic work in erudition be edited? is worth our attention. In the present case, we have illustrated the extremes of doctrine and practice. Mr. Hutton asserts that the chief merit of an editor is "to have no opinions" and merely registers briefly in footnotes whatever may serve to correct or explain the original text which is printed *literatim.* These new notes are plainly indicated by square brackets. They digest intelligently the relevant literature of the past forty-five years. Mr. Douglas, on the contrary, constantly passes upon disputed points, interpolates the original text freely—for a part of the text this work had been done by Sir Joseph Crowe himself—marks his notes with an asterisk, and as we have seen has added as much matter as there was originally. One editor believes that as much as possible this sort of a scholar's classic should be let alone; the other that it should be thoroughly overhauled in the interest of usefulness. Mr. Hutton carefully tidies up about a monument, the palings of which have fallen into disrepair; Mr. Douglas effects a scientific restoration after the manner of Viollet-le-Duc. We hold emphatically that the conservative way is right. The other course may be judged by its fruits in the case, say, of "Warton's History of English Poetry," which has been three times refurbished in a century and a quarter. In each revision it has lost something of its integrity as a classic of eighteenth century criticism and research; in each improvement, it has been more difficult to read and more confusing to consult. In fact, this disastrous process of accretion, which may also be excellently studied in the annotators of Vasari, is insidious. The first revision may have a specious look of usefulness, the second is distressing, the third appalling. It is only impersonal works, bibliographies and the like, that can safely be revamped in this manner. Moreover the editor who is really capable of bringing "C & C" to date is wasting his time and ours. His true course is to write a new history. For a thoroughly renovated edition of "C & C" there may have been sound business reasons. All scholarly considerations, however, not to mention those of sentiment, make for the other course. Unless there were a marked superiority of editorial efficiency involved a student would naturally prefer the convenient reprint of this famous work to an apparently overswollen revision.

As a matter of fact, if editorial comparisons were to be made, Mr. Hutton would come off very well. To one who believes in specialism, it is a positive chagrin to find that the impartial man of letters has done his work so much better than the expert. The advantage of Mr. Douglas's voluminous addenda is frequently very slight, he lacks all sense of proportion, his omissions are of an ominous sort. From every bibliographical point of view, Mr. Hutton's notes are more complete and trustworthy than Mr. Douglas's. It was a profound misfortune for Mr. Douglas to lose by death his associate, the late Arthur Strong. His taste was central, and his judgment would doubtless have restrained the aberrations of the versatile junior editor. Mr. Douglas's course has been an erratic one. His predilection is for a provincial school, the Sienese. About his only contribution to central Tuscan problems, aside from an excellent study of Fra Angelico, is a bit of journalistic paradox in which he attempted to reduce Cimabue to the status of a patriotic myth. It is disconcerting to find this vagary elaborately exploited in the first volume. Naturally Mr. Douglas should have recorded his opinion, however bad, but respect for his predecessors would have dictated a businesslike statement of utmost brevity. His failure to give credit to the studies of contemporary critics is fairly disconcerting. Only in the case of Italian contributions can one count reasonably upon his vigilance. And as one reads on, the lamentable conviction grows that Mr. Douglas's silences are not capricious, but purposeful. He has constantly used other men's results, while studiously avoiding acknowledgment. A more painful discovery is that he has used the biographical notices of his authors, a great gentleman and a great scholar, as the vehicle of innuendo against professional rivals. A trickle of such imputation runs disgustfully though the notes of these three volumes. No one will suspect the *Nation* of wishing to limit the scope or vehemence of legitimate controversy, but we are forced in simple duty to our readers to say that an editor who could soil a classic with his private animosities evinces a mental and moral perversion that is simply inexplicable and inspires fundamental misgivings as to his competence. The

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issue is quite as much one of utility as of professional ethics. By deliberately suppressing scores of discussions, which are duly epitomized by Mr. Hutton, Mr. Douglas has by so much impaired the scholarly value of his revision.

In order to make the comparison between the editions concrete, let us take the life of the Fabriano master Allegretto Nuzi, concerning whom considerable information has accrued since the original edition. To this artist the Murray-Scribner revision gives five pages, the Dent-Dutton reprint four. To the credit of Mr. Douglas is to be set one picture otherwise unregistered, the correction of the date of another, an account of changes in the Sacristy of S. Domenico at Fabriano, and a somewhat explicit statement of Allegretto's Sienese affinities. This relationship is so obvious that Crowe and Cavalcaselle merely treated it in general earlier in the chapter. Mr. Douglas omits, while Mr. Hutton records, Suida's and Perkins's discussions of Allegretto's Florentine relations, Mr. Perkins's service in locating an altar-piece at Apiro, and the interesting opinions by Perkins, Sirén, Venturi, and Hermanin on the enigmatical frescoes in the Chapel of St. Nicholas, at Tolentino. For the student it is certainly more important to be put on the track of this discussion than it is to learn that Mr. Douglas recognized a fragment by Allegretto in the shop of a Roman dealer, or that one of the Fornari pictures, is possibly misdated by a year. In short, there is no substantial contribution to our knowledge of the master justifying the additional page of matter in the authorized revision. The case is typical. General readers and the average student will sensibly prefer the reprint in three volumes; specialists cannot ignore the revision in six, but since it must be supplemented both by Venturi's History and Mr. Hutton's edition, the bulkier edition must be regarded as a sort of necessary evil, and its use will be accompanied by constant disappointment and tribulation. In the remaining three volumes Mr. Douglas will touch matters in which he is more versed, but also in which the giving of due credit to fellow critics is more important. He will therefore have an opportunity to recede from that policy of slur and suppression which disfigures and cripples his three volumes already at hand.

While Mr. Hutton's editorial task has been admirably conceived, the proofreading of his notes is faulty, and his bibliographical broom has not swept quite clean. German sources are too often taken at second hand. In the case of such authors as Baldovinetti and Botticini the latest literature has not been consulted. Dr. Bode's important studies of Verrocchio are not cited. The whole treatment of Verrocchio's school is defective. Muntz's and Müller-Walde's opinions as to the Baptism should have been given. The document which accredits the Madonna of Pistoia to Verrocchio is ignored; also the views of those critics who accept it as authoritative. Nearly all the students of Leonardo da Vinci, Horne and Gronau among others, have made relevant comments on the Verrocchian pictures, but no trace of this appears in the footnotes. The charming Annunciation by Piero Pollaiuolo in the Berlin Museum is omitted. Such are some penalties of haste in a complicated and most exacting task. One is led to fear that generally the files of such important series as the Prussian *Jahrbücher* and the *Zeitschrift für Bildende Kunst* have not been systematically consulted. This gingerly attitude towards northern critics characterizes both Mr. Hutton and Mr. Douglas. Mr. Hutton's list of Lorenzo Monaco's works, for example, might have been greatly enlarged if he had really used the important monograph by Sirén, which is casually cited. It may possibly, like certain of Venturi's volumes, have come when the printing was far advanced. Venturi adds to both these editions of "C. & C." an important discussion of the Cavallinesque frescoes in Sta. Maria Donna Regina, Naples. In fact, the rehabilitation of the early Roman school is likely to continue apace. Since Venturi's History very interesting frescoes of vaguely Cavallinesque type have been discovered at Amalfi. Such addenda could be made indefinitely. In all broader regards the three-volume reprint is satisfactory and should win favor.

It is pleasant to turn from these tedious but necessary considerations and recall that gallant brotherly pair who wrote the History. Both hardened in peril, but of opposite temperaments, Crowe and Cavalcaselle were the Artagnan and Aramis of art history. Brought up in the ateliers of Paris, Joseph Archer Crowe soon turned from the practice to the criticism of painting. Adversity overtook him, and journalism tided him over as it has so many ready talents. Whether taking notes in the holy calm of some frescoed chapel or writing dispatches at Inkermann or Solferino, Crowe was equally at home. He was one of those efficient cosmopolitan English gentlemen who are predestined to live distinguished and die knights. Crowe could have been anything, Giovanni Battista Cavalcaselle only what he was, a passionate and indefatigable student of the art of his fatherland. True, he had been a revolutionary agitator in his native Lombardy, a political prisoner, and but for the opportune outbreak of the revolt of 1848 at Piacenza would have faced an Austrian firing squad. When his property was confiscated after Austria resumed control, in pitiful need he reached Paris, where Crowe, whom he had met in 1847, succored him and brought him to London. Yet Cavalcaselle was primarily the savant, combining in a remarkable degree the plodding and perceptive qualities, while Crowe remained essentially a superior journalist with the executive quality and the discursive intellectual curiosity that in its higher ranges the profession implies. Cavalcaselle was a student of profound and specialized acquirements, Crowe a versatile and sympathetic critic. Both had begun as painters, and a keen interest in technic was a bond that united aspects of art otherwise diverse. Of the chance meeting in a Westphalian post-chaise and of those few hours in the Berlin gallery that initiated the friendship of a lifetime, Sir Joseph Crowe later told charmingly in his autobiography. From him, too, we know of those months of privation the pair endured together in their shared lodging in Silver Street, London, Cavalcaselle working at the bothersome details of Crowe's first undertaking, now done in partnership, "The Early Flemish Painters," while Crowe threw off the text amid the interruptions of war correspondence and domestic journalism. The last day of 1856 the book appeared, and a New Year dawned with better prospects for our Artagnan and Aramis.

No mountainous task of mere writing appalled the seasoned journalist, and soon the partners were preparing their most famous work, "A New History of Painting in Italy," the first volume of which appeared from the house of Murray, in 1864. It included the painters of central Italy, Raphael being reserved for a later elaborate biography in two volumes (1883, 1885). With amazing speed, for this time the authors were following unbeaten tracks, the "History of Painting in Northern Italy," the first volume of which bears the date 1871, was completed. Again the greatest artist of the region, Titian, was honored by a bulky biography (1877). Such was the life-work of the partnership. It is possibly the most remarkable instance of literary collaboration on record. More scholarly readers soon divined that the views and the rhetoric were usually Crowe's and the facts Cavalcaselle's. Both as criticism and as a compendium the work was remarkable; but, on the whole, the value of the discovered pictures and the new attributions far outweighed that of the new points of view. Accordingly, it has become the fashion to take Crowe rather lightly, and impute all the good in the book to his Italian associate. This is something less than fair. It is true that without Cavalcaselle Crowe would surely have written no history of permanent value, but it is equally true that, without the encouragement of Crowe and his substantial aid, Cavalcaselle would probably have accumulated prodigiously and produced next to nothing.

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Let us recall that his revision of the still incomplete Italian edition of the "New History" took more time than the writing of the original work. The fact sets in proper relief the executive merits of the less learned partner. Let us recall, too, that it is very doubtful if such a work could have succeeded, or even existed, in any country but an England already half-Ruskinized, and that Crowe's injection of a certain journalistic vivacity into the scholarly texture of the book gained for it paradoxically something like popularity.

As for the "New History," it opened an epoch. It was the first time that a substantial portion of the history of painting had been treated with the thoroughness that Tiraboschi devoted to Italian literature, or the French Benedictines to French literature. Through French, German, and Italian translations the "New History" became a cosmopolitan institution. It was easy to jibe at certain peculiarities of "C. & C."—in fact, its pedantries and vivacities were equally condemned—the work set a standard and raised the history of art out of dilettanteism to the level of a science. If the merit of this was largely Cavalcaselle's the moving cause was Crowe.

After a generation of eager research and criticism it is easy to see the defects of the "New History." The taste of Crowe was by no means impeccable. Giotto he treated by simple dilution of Vasari. The finer qualities of such bizarre geniuses as Pollaiuolo and Botticelli quite escaped him. Ghirlandaio, who at bottom was merely a weakened reincarnation of Masaccio, he could regard as the culminating point of the Florentine renaissance. Cavalcaselle habitually evinced an undue distrust of Vasari, and in several cases documents have confirmed statements of the Aretine which were branded as fictions. In the broader matter of development it was unfortunate to treat the early work of Leonardo, so pregnant of influence, merely incidentally and with uncertain touch. In general the treatment of the fifteenth century was, if an enormous advance over previous work, tentative and unsatisfactory. It was in the treatment of the great mural painters of the fourteenth century that the authors built their enduring monument, or to be more accurate, Cavalcaselle built his.

He must have had simply the finest visual memory ever granted to mortal man. To-day the student of so-called Giottesque painting may whisk about Italy in trains and motor 'buses. One can now see Giotto in the morning at the Basilica of St. Francis at Assisi, correct the impression at Sta. Croce, Florence, in the afternoon, and complete the survey in the Arena Chapel, Padua, the next morning. Or, short of such touristic feats, one may sit quietly in his study and compare minutely admirable photographs of all these frescoes. Cavalcaselle travelled slowly the powdery roads of Italy in carriage or on foot; in comparing master with master he had little aid to memory except those swift and profusely annotated sketches of which he made thousands. Then think of the inherent difficulty of his task. To the average intelligent traveller these level-browed, earnest folk that people the Giottesque compositions look precisely alike. Most persons, even though somewhat experienced, and of good natural taste, would hesitate before the elementary discrimination whether a wall-painting is Florentine or Sienese. Moreover, tradition had for centuries worked havoc with the facts. There are probably fifty chapels in Italy where the sacristan still murmurs the name of Giotto. Generally speaking important mural painting had been ascribed either to Giotto or to the nearest great master of repute. It was a question of ascertaining the few cases in which tradition or documents had actually given us the work of a master, and then of proceeding cautiously outwards in the train of subtle stylistic identities. This exceedingly delicate task Cavalcaselle achieved faithfully; in fact, where he found complete disorder he left an order so generally well established that most subsequent criticism has merely followed up his leads. The chapters on the Giottesque painters and their Sienese contemporaries remain to show what can be achieved against all odds by simple intelligent, affectionate intentness. Other men have studied these works with equal fidelity. No one has looked at them with that concentrated vision which implies possession so masterfully as that modest scholar Giovanni Cavalcaselle, and no one, we think, ever will again. As we admire the stately monument which through patient pilgrimages and vigils he built up for himself, piece by piece, let us not forget that, but for the efficient friendliness of his English co-worker, we should seek that monument in vain.

Among the finely illustrated books on the autumn list of Scribners are "The Art of Northern Italy," by C. Ricci; "Art in Great Britain and Ireland," by Sir Walter Armstrong; "Pictures in Color," by Harrison Fisher, and "Girls," by Henry Hutt.

A committee of specialists appointed two years ago by the Italian government reports that, although the stability of the leaning tower of Pisa is in no wise in danger, means must be used to remove all uncertainty. This tower does not rest on the broad and massive foundations which tradition claims, but upon a hollow ring, corresponding exactly to the cylindrical superstructure, which has a depth of not more than three metres and an inner diameter of seven and a half metres, or the width of the interior of the tower. References to the construction and history of this tower, which dates from 1174, are scanty, and are well presented in a July issue of the *Marzocco*. The commission holds that its deviation from the plumb may not be due to a gradual, progressive giving way of the soil, but to exceptional, independent causes, although the contrary opinion finds many able supporters. Some investigations made in 1829 by Edward Cresy and G. L. Taylor, representatives of an unidentified English society, are regarded as probably the most reliable basis for comparison with actual conditions. Their measurements are known in Italy only at second hand, through a pamphlet, "Fabbriche principali di Pisa," published in 1831 by Ranieri Grassi. Other measurements were published in 1859 by a French nobleman, Fleury de Rohault, but are regarded as less trustworthy, and at intervals within the last ten years by a Brooklyn architect, W. H. Goodyear (the *American Architect*, October, 1909, and "The Architectural Exhibition at the Brooklyn Museum," p. 168). Grassi is said to have attributed the leaning to the "virtuosity of the architects," just as Mr. Goodyear takes issue with Vasari's statement that the tower's inclination was accidental, and asserts that the builders used delicate horizontal curves and slight departures from the vertical to counteract distortions of perspective. If the English measures are reported correctly, the deviation from the plumb increased thirteen centimetres between 1829 and 1859, and seven centimetres in the last fifty years, or from 86.5 mm. in 1829 to 92 mm. in 1910, that is, about 5.5 mm. for every metre of height. Contributory causes are found in the earthquake at Pisa in 1834, the most violent ever known there; in excavations made in 1835 to uncover some of the lower columns of the tower, and in drainage basins which were built in 1839. The fact, however, remains true that at least three other Pisan towers also lean, a strong argument for the effects of the character of the subsoil. The planes of the stairs of the lower stories of the campanile incline with the tower. The level of the ground on which it stands is lower than that of the neighboring monuments, the soil is composed of sand and clay, and is full of springs, which, if closed, open new ways, even through the foundations. As early as 1573, a cement was used to prevent this filtration, an operation which covered a part of the lower story for over two hundred years. But if Antonio Veneziano's fresco in the Campo Santo, which was painted in 1384, and showed the campanile in about its present condition, gives some debatable basis for the argument of artistic intention, there is also Vasari's comment that the architects had primitive ideas of drainage, and did not know how properly to build the foundations, sinking piles over the area. The tower was constructed in three periods, with long intervals between, and it is probably true that then, as now, a subterranean current of water, tending northeast, slowly wore away the soil and caused the original sinking on the southern side, when the building had reached a certain height.

Prof. Adolf Cozza met his death recently at Rome by falling from a scaffold in the International Agricultural Institute, where he was painting the frescoes on the ceiling. He is remembered for his history of the port of Ostia, but chiefly for his work in connection with archæology.

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Finance.

LOOKING AHEAD.

When financial markets are genuinely perplexed about their own condition they seek, with more humility than usual, the diagnosis of high financial experts, and sometimes learn something of real value. They have vicariously buttonholed, so to speak, all American financiers lately returned from Europe; but the result has been, on this occasion, a series of more than usually Delphic deliverances.

President McCrea of the Pennsylvania pointed out that "business is just marking time," and that he did not "look for any great change until several things are out of the way." But the Stock Exchange had already recorded its own opinion to that effect at least. George Gould reassuringly observed that "the present inertia and dulness, from whatever cause it may arise, cannot continue forever"—which everybody knew before. Even Chairman Gary of the Steel Corporation, usually ready to let the public know his independent judgment, last week vouchsafed only the assurance that "there is no trouble in the business world, and there will be no trouble whatever in America, unless it is caused by political influences, changes, or unrest."

But that "unless" was just what Wall Street wished to see disposed of. When to these replies are added such disappointingly ambiguous remarks as James J. Hill's comment that the need of the situation is "conservation of common sense"—which might be a fling at Congress, or at Wall Street, or at the people at large—and the Illinois Central vice-president's assurance that a boom would instantly return "if the demagogues could be squelched," bewilderment as to what really is to happen becomes reasonably complete.

It is barely possible that the reserve or ambiguity of these prophecies arises from the fact that the prophets themselves are in the dark. This has been a curious year, in which high financial oracles have found a new explanation almost every month, as to why things happened as they did; and the stock market which, at the end of August, seemed to give the conundrum up, was perhaps the embodiment of the expert state of mind. Wall Street, the stock market, and the rest of us could also prophesy what might happen if there should be no political unrest this autumn, or if Roosevelt should stop making speeches, or if every one should be sensible as Wall Street and the Stock Exchange understand the word. But people are trying to discover what will happen, supposing (as every one supposes) that things will in these respects go on pretty much as they have done before. This is a question on which the oracles do not as yet appear to have thrown much light.

In all the comparison and reminiscence evoked by the rather remarkable twelvemonth past, there have been two analogies which occurred to the observant mind—the story of 1895 (with its sequel in 1896) and the story of 1903. In a general way, it has been conceded by the financial community that our case resembled that of 1895 and 1896 in that a premature after-panic expansion, in trade, in commodities, and on the Stock Exchange, broke down when it was realized that the country had not yet fully recovered from the financial depression of a very few months before. It resembled the case of 1903, in that an enthusiastic boom among promoters, stock speculators, and operators in commodity markets passed into a stage of severe readjustment and compulsory liquidation when it was found that the whole community's capital resources were tied up.

The total inertia of the present month's markets—this in the face of a familiar tradition, that September is the month when security and money markets are expected to show their true colors, under the influence of autumn conditions—makes it somewhat interesting to inquire what occurred in the corresponding month of the other two years in question. As a matter of fact, September of 1896, of 1903, and of 1910, affords a singular contrast. In September, 1896, we were within two months of a highly critical election—a fact which may seem to suggest the present year. Every one professed uncertainty and misgivings; the Stock Exchange in particular was in a constant shiver of apprehension. Yet what happened in that month of 1896 was a demonstration of great strength in financial markets, with a rise of 9 or 10 points in many stocks, on great activity.

September, 1903, had an oddly different history. August of that year, like August of the present year, had been a month of decided recovery on the Stock Exchange—10 to 12 points in many shares—and, although the iron market continued to decline, Wall Street at least had begun to hope that the worst was over. It was not; September brought a budget of most disquieting news regarding the industrial situation which had been watched so anxiously at intervals, all summer. The price of iron broke with great violence; the $100,000,000 Consolidated Lake Superior Company went down; it became quietly known that the Steel Corporation's earnings had been cut down 12 per cent., and that its quarterly dividend would have to be reduced; prices on the Stock Exchange broke 10 and 15 per cent., and by early October the financial demoralization of the hour had brought about the bank suspensions at Baltimore and Pittsburgh.

It would be difficult—thus far at any rate in the present September—to draw analogies with the corresponding month in either 1896 or 1903. The country has an exciting election on its hands, as it had in 1896; it has a perplexing and disturbing industrial situation, as it had in 1903; and it has reflected both phases of the situation by exactly such a prolonged mid-summer break in stocks as occurred in each of the two years. Yet it resembles neither in the market's altogether apathetic behavior at the autumn's opening.

Here is an opportunity for the ingenious and imaginative mind to draw conclusions. There will be those who prefer to rest their judgment on the presumption that our industrial situation is so much better than in September, 1903, that we could not reasonably repeat that year's stock market demoralization, and on the further supposition that the political skies have not yet cleared up as they had by September, 1896, so that prices cannot logically rise as they then did. This balancing of opinion might explain a market which does nothing. But there would still remain a portion of the community who would stubbornly insist that the market has been refusing to move this month because it really could not guess, any more than the eminent financiers just cited, how the financial situation was itself most likely to turn out.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, W. I. L. Photographing in Old England. Baker & Taylor. $2.50.
Ashmead-Bartlett, E. The Passing of the Shereefian Empire. Dodd, Mead. $4 net.
Atkinson, G. F. Botany for High Schools. Holt. $1.25.
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Baedeker's Berlin and Its Environs; Belgium and Holland; Paris and Its Environs. 3 vols. Scribner. 90 cents, $1.80, $1.80, net.
Barclay, F. L. The Wheels of Time. Crowell. 50 cents net.
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Bishop, C. McT. Jesus the Worker. Revell. $1.25, net.
Blanchan, N. The American Flower Garden. New edition. Doubleday, Page. $5.
Bronson, E. B. Reminiscences of a Ranchman (new, revised ed.); The Red-Blooded. 2 vols. Chicago: McClurg. $1.50 each.
Browning's Pippa Passes and Men and Women. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. $1.25 net.
Bunker, A. Sketches from the Karen Hills. Revell. $1 net.
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Butler, A. J. The Forerunners of Dante: a Selection from Italian Poetry Before 1300. Frowde.
Byington, E. H. The Children's Pulpit. Boston: Pilgrim Press. 75 cents net.
Carleton, M. G. Autobiography of a Disembodied Soul. Vreeland Pub. Co.
Casson, H. N. History of the Telephone. Chicago: McClurg. $1.50 net.
Century Readings for a Course in English Literature. Edited and annotated by J. W. Cunliffe, J. F. A. Pyre, and K. Young. Century Co.
Chambers, G. F. The Story of the Comets. Second ed. Frowde.

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Duncan, N. Billy Topsail & Company. Revell. $1.50.
Enock, C. R. The Andes and the Amazon. Scribner. $1.50 net.
Finberg, A. J. Turner's Sketches and Drawings. Scribner. $4 net.
Fletcher, B. F., and H. P. The English Home. Scribner. $4 net.
Gardiner, E. N. Greek Athletic Sports and Festivals. Macmillan. $2.50 net.
Grenfell, W. T. A Man's Helpers. Boston: Pilgrim Press. 50 cents net.
Grenfell, W. T. Down to the Sea: Yarns from the Labrador. Revell. $1 net.
Guyot, Y. Socialistic Fallacies. Macmillan. $1.50 net.
Hall, T. C. History of Ethics within Organized Christianity. Scribner. $3 net.
Hartmann, S. Landscape and Figure Composition. Baker & Taylor.
Haydon, A. L. The Riders of the Plains: Adventures and Romance with the North-West Mounted Police, 1873-1910. Chicago: McClurg.
Hazard, D. L. Coast and Geodetic Survey at Baldwin, Kan., 1905 and 1906; at Vieques, Porto Rico, 1905 and 1906. Washington: Government Printing-Office.
Hedley, J. Tramps in Dark Mongolia. Scribner. $3.50 net.
Hirst, W. A. Argentina. Scribner. $3 net.
Home, G. The Romance of London. Macmillan. $1 net.
Hone. The Dairy of Philip Hone, 1828-1851. Edited, with intro., by B. Tuckerman. Dodd, Mead. $3.50 net.
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Jelfs, G. F. Commentaries on Sin. Boston: Sherman, French. $1 net.
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Le Clercq, C. New Relation of Gaspesia, Trans. and ed. by W. F. Ganong. Toronto: Champlain Society.
Lodge, O. Parent and Child. Funk & Wagnalls. 50 cents net.
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McCutcheon, G. B. The Rose in the Ring. Dodd, Mead. $1.50.
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Metcalf, E. S. Talien, a Spanish Princess. Chicago: L'Ora Queta Pub. Co.
Modern Business, Vol. V, Money and Banking, by E. D. Howard; VI, Banking Practice and Foreign Exchange, by H. McN. Jefferson and F. Escher. Alex. Hamilton Institute.
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Sturgis, R. The Artist's Way of Working. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead. $5 net.
The Vision of the Young Man Menelaus: Studies of Pentecost and Easter. By the author of Resurrectio Christi. London: Kegan Paul.
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